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ABSTRACT

This proceedings contains 30 papers: "What Matters in Planning a Conference" (Ahmed et al.); "Faculty Motivations for Learning To Teach at a Distance with Instructional Technology" (Armstrong); "The Use of Literature in Qualitative Research" (Austin, Babchuk); "Reading Women's Lives" (Baker-Clark); "Faculty Perceptions of Adult Students and Their Learning Needs" (Beverly, Clark); "Assessing Teaching Style Preference and Factors that Influence Teaching Style Preference of Registered Dieticians" (Carr); "Implementing Learning Contracts" (Chiang); "Constructionism Theory to Web-based Course Design" (Conceicao-Runlee, Daley); "Literacy, Life Skills, Training and Transition in a Correctional Facility" (Cooper); "The Long-Term Impact of American Adult Educators on International Graduate Students" (Cutz, Atchade); "The Urban Context" (Daley et al.); "Low-Literate Blue-Collar Male Workers" (Davis-Harrison, Martin); "Boundaries and Beliefs among Teachers of Adults" (Dirkx et al.); "Fostering Adult Learner Success in the Community College Experience" (Dirkx et al.); "Cognitive Development of Adult Undergraduate Students" (Fishback, Polson); "Integrating the Functions of Teaching, Research, Service and Income Generation through Participatory Action Research" (Folkman, Rai); "Amanda's Story" (Geerling); "Learning To Write for the GED [General Educational Development] Exam" (Hansman, Wilson); "Pooling It All Together" (Holtorf); "Jumping to Warp Speed with Our Vision Blurred" (Jenkins); "Sustaining Activism" (Kovan); "What I Learned about Change I Learned in Practice, Not from the Literature" (Kreitzer); "The Impact of Welfare Reform on the Delivery of Adult Literacy Instruction" (Martin, Fisher); "Co-Creating Knowledge" (Mealman, Lawrence); "Critical Reflection in Practice" (Rocco); "The Assessment of Student Learning Outcomes in Management and Business-Related Adult Accelerated Degree Completion Programs in the Coalition for Christian Colleges and Universities" (Sherlock); "Praxis Not Consensus" (Smith, Hansman); "Adding Value" (Springer); "Affirmative Action Accountability" (Zawacki, Abraham); and "Learning Organizations" (Bashore). (SK)

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ED 424 419

Proceedings

of the

Seventeenth Annual

Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference

in Adult, Continuing and Community Education

October 8-10, 1998

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Edited by

George S. Wood, Jr., Ed. D.
Professor Emeritus of Educational Leadership
Ball State University
Muncie, Indiana

Mary Margaret Webber, M.A.
Doctoral Assistant—Dept. of Educational Leadership
Ball State University
Muncie, Indiana

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phone: 800/848-4815, ext. 2-7069 or (614) 292-7069
fax: 614/292-1260
e-mail: ericacve@postbox.acs.ohio-state.edu
website: http://ericacve.org

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Ball State University

Teachers College
Department of Educational Leadership

October 8, 1998

Dear Research-to-Practice Conference Participants:

Welcome to the 1998 Annual Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference in Adult, Continuing, and Community Education and the campus of Ball State University!!

We are pleased to host the Conference for the second time in its distinguished 17-year history. We are also pleased to present the Conference in Ball State University's new Alumni Center, which we think is particularly well suited to our group of practitioners and researchers in adult education, continuing education, and community education. Ours is one of the first events of this type to be held in the Alumni Center since it opened this past spring.

Our local conference committee has worked hard for the past year to put together a Conference which you will find challenging and rewarding. University faculty, graduate students, and practitioners from across the state of Indiana have collaborated in the effort. We appreciate the contributions of all of them.

This year the Conference has been expanded to include a Pre-Conference Program for Graduate Students and a Practitioner Research Showcase. These features are in addition to the traditional high quality sessions devoted to the presentation and discussion of research studies, research issues, practitioner concerns, and evaluation studies. The Conference has become a three-day event for the first time.

We hope that you will be able to use your time well in exploring new research, new issues, and new concerns in new ways with your professional colleagues. We hope that you will be challenged to look beyond the simplistic and the mundane. We hope that you find yourself constantly engaged in reflecting upon the ideas being shared at this Conference. And we hope that you leave here excited about something which will improve your professional practice.

Enjoy the Conference, the Ball State University campus, and the opportunity to learn!

Peter Murk
Conference Co-Chair

Jim McElhinney
Conference Co-Chair

765-285-8488 Muncie, Indiana 47306-0590 FAX: 765-285-2166

Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference

in Adult, Continuing and Community Education

Mission Statement

The conference provides a forum for practitioners and researchers to discuss practices, concepts, evaluation, and research studies in order to improve practice in Adult Education. Through such discussion and collaboration participants contribute toward the realization of a more humane and just society through lifelong learning.

Prepared on behalf of the Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference Steering Committee by Boyd Rossing
May 28, 1991

Seventeenth Annual

1998 Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference

in Adult, Continuing and Community Education

October 8-10, 1998

at Ball State University

Conference Hosts/Sponsors

The Educational Leadership Department, Teachers College, Ball State University

The Office of University Advancement, Ball State University

Co-Sponsors

The School of Continuing Education and Public Service, Ball State University

Indiana University, School of Continuing Studies

Indiana University-Purdue University at Fort Wayne

The Indiana Association for Adult and Continuing Education

Conference Planning Committee

Many people have helped to make the *1998 Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference in Adult, Continuing and Community Education* a success. A special thanks to all of the following who served on the conference planning committee:

Ahmed K. Ahmed
Pierre Atchade
Steve Edwards
Jean E. A. Fleming
Denise Henard
Juan Carlos Judikis
Mardell Kuhns
Don Kreitzer
Bobby Malone
Kimberly S. McDonald
James H. McElhinney
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Nancy Saunders
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1998 Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference
in Adult, Continuing and Community Education

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SSM Rehabilitation Institute
St. Louis, MO

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National-Louis University
Wheaton, IL

Peter J. Murk
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Danny Wood
Metropolitan School District of
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George S. Wood, Jr.
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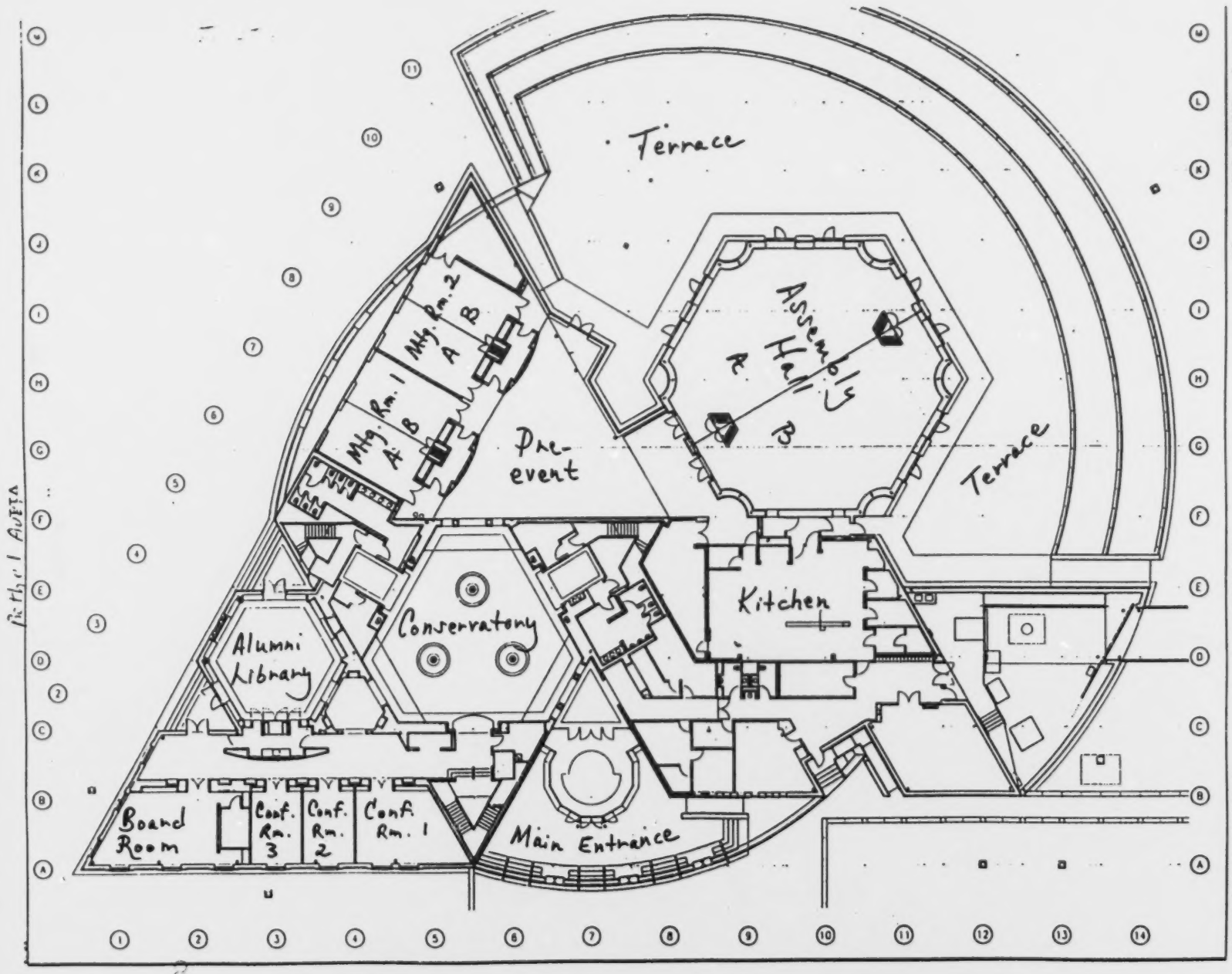

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1998 Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference
in Adult, Continuing and Community Education

Program Schedule

THURSDAY, OCTOBER 8, 1998
Ball State University Alumni Center

1:00-5:00 p.m. Graduate Student Pre-Conference

Assembly Hall

1:00-1:15 p.m. **Welcome**
Roy Weaver, Dean of Teachers College
Ball State University

1:15-2:15 p. m. **Session One: "Scholarly Writing"**
James C. Fisher
University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee
Amy Rose
Northern Illinois University

2:15-2:30 p.m. **Break**

2:30-3:30 p.m. **Session Two: "How to Publish"**
John M. Dirkx
Michigan State University

3:30-4:00 p.m. **Coffee, Tea, & Soda Break**

4:00-5:00 p.m. **Session Three: "The Dissertation Process"**
John A. Henschke
University of Missouri
Kimberly S. McDonald
Indiana University-Purdue University, Fort Wayne
Richard Orem
Northern Illinois University
Nancy Saunders
Indiana Wesleyan University

4:00-7:00 p.m. **Registration**

7:00 p.m. **Dessert Reception Opens**

7:30-9:30 p.m. **An Evening with Butch Wilson and Dessert Reception**

Welcome

Dr. Bobby G. Malone
Chairperson, Department of Educational Leadership
Teachers College
Ball State University

Dr. Warren Vander Hill
Provost and Vice President for Academic Affairs
Ball State University

Special Guest Presentation:
"An Evening with Butch Wilson"

Dr. Arthur L. Wilson, Ed.D.
North Carolina State University

FRIDAY, OCTOBER 9, 1998
Ball State University Alumni Center

8:00-11:00 a.m. **Registration**

8:30-9:30 a.m. **Continental Breakfast**

9:15 a.m. **Welcome**
Dr. Don Park
Vice President of University Advancement
Ball State University

9:30-10:30 a.m. **Opening Session**

"What Does Research-to-Practice Mean?"

Panel Members: Phyllis Cunningham, Don Kreitzer, Joe Levine, and Butch Wilson.

Panel Moderator: Henry Merrill

Practitioner Research Showcase

Alumni Center Library

FRIDAY

8:30 a.m.-noon **Adult Basic Education, Literacy, GED, ESL Practitioner Researchers**

12:30-5:00 p.m. **Business and Industry Practitioner Researchers**

10:45-11:45 a.m. **Concurrent Sessions: 1**

John M. Dirkx, Gloria Kielbaso, and Ann Allen,
Fostering Adult Learner Success in the Community College Experience: The Role of Mandated Curricular Policy
Meeting Room 1

Craig A. Mealman and Randee Lipson Lawrence
Co-Creating Knowledge: A Collaborative Inquiry into Collaborative Inquiry.
Meeting Room 2

Cami Zawacki and Sharon Abraham
Affirmative Action Accountability: Learning that Blends Individual and Organizational Values.
Conference Room 1

Simone Conceicao-Runlee and Barbara J. Daley
Constructionism Theory to Web-Based Course Design: An Instructional Design Approach
Conference Room 2

Falinda Geerling
Amanda's Story: A Case Study of Personal & Professional Transformative Learning.
Board Room

12:00 noon-1:30 p.m. **Luncheon**

Dr. Suellen Reed
Superintendent of Public Instruction
Indiana Department of Education

Presentation of the *1998 Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference* Graduate Student Research Paper Award

1:30-2:30 p.m. **Concurrent Sessions: 2**

Sherwood Smith and Catherine Hansman
Praxis Not Consensus: Curriculum Meets Classroom in Multicultural Adult Education
Meeting Room 1

Tonette S. Rocco
Critical Reflection in Practice: Experience of a Novice Teacher
Meeting Room 2

Rebecca D. Armstrong
Faculty Motivations for Learning to Teach at a Distance with Instructional Technology
Conference Room 1

Mitchell L. Springer
Added Value from Being Outsourced to Being Perceived as Representative of Best Practices In One Company's Story
Conference Room 2

Jeffrey F. Sherlock
The Assessment of Student Learning Outcomes in Management and Business-Related Adult Accelerated Degree Completion Programs in the Coalition for Christian Colleges and Universities
Board Room

2:30-2:45 **Refreshment Break**

2:45-3:45 **Concurrent Sessions: 3**

Gaye Ranck Jenkins
Jumping to Warp Speed with Our Vision Blurred: Distance Education and the Social Missions of Adult Education
Meeting Room 1

Jessica T. Kovan
Sustaining Activism: Learning about the Self
Meeting Room 2

Catherine A. Hansman and Arthur L. Wilson
Learning to Write for the GED Exam: The Role Of Activity, Tools, and Culture
Conference Room 1

Michelle Kuenzi
Controversy, Culture, and Cognition: Issues for Literacy Scholars and Practitioners
Conference Room 2

Linda H. Chiang
Implementing Learning Contracts: A Metacognitive Approach
Board Room

4:00-5:00 p.m. **Concurrent Sessions: 4**

Larry G. Martin and James C. Fisher
The Impact of Welfare Reform on the Delivery of Adult Literacy Instruction
Meeting Room 1

Charles A. Baker-Clark
Reading Women's Lives: Implications for Men
Meeting Room 2

Polly J. Bashore
Learning Organizations: Building Research into Practice
Conference Room 1

Leonard Giever
Advocacy in Non Formal Adult Learning Organizations: Conceptual or Operational
Conference Room 2

German Cutz and Pierre J. Atchade
The Long Term Impact of American Adult Educators on International Graduate Students
Board Room

5:30-7:00 p.m. **Reception at the E. B. and Bertha C. Ball Center**

6:30 p.m. **Dinner on own**

SATURDAY, OCTOBER 10, 1998
Ball State University Alumni Center

7-8:15 a.m. **Steering Committee Meeting**
Board Room—with continental breakfast

8:00-9:00 a.m. **Registration**

8:00-9:00 a.m. **Continental Breakfast**

Practitioner Research Showcase

Alumni Center Library
SATURDAY
8:30 a.m.-noon **Health Profession Practitioner Researchers**

8:30-9:30 a.m. **Concurrent Sessions: 5**

Barbara J. Daley, James C. Fisher, and Larry G. Martin
The Urban Context: An Arena for Constructing Knowledge and Fostering Critically Reflective Practice in Adult Education.
Meeting Room 1

R. Ann Austin and Wayne A. Babchuk
The Use of Literature in Qualitative Research: A Practitioner Driven Case Study
Meeting Room 2A

Corine M. Carr
Assessing Teaching Style Preference and Factors that Influence Teaching Style Preference of Registered Dietitians
Meeting Room 2B

Aleza Beverly and Karen Clark
Faculty Perceptions of Adult Students and their Learning Needs
Conference Room 2

9:45-10:45a.m. **Concurrent Sessions: 6**

John M. Dirkx, Marilyn Amey, and Lisa Haston
Boundaries and Beliefs Among Teachers of Adults: A Case Study of Curricular Transformation
Meeting Room 1

Donald J. Kreitzer
What I Learned about Change I Learned in Practice, Not from the Literature
Meeting Room 2A

Dan Folkman and Kalyani Rai
Integrating the Functions of Teaching, Research Service and Income Generation through Participatory Action Research
Meeting Room 2B

Mary Katherine Cooper
Literacy, Life Skills, Training and Transition in a Correctional Facility: An Evaluation
Conference Room 2

Ahmed K. Ahmed, Pierre J. Atchade, Jean Fleming, and Mary Margaret Webber
What Matters in Planning a Conference: A Self-Study
Conference Room 1

11:00-noon **Concurrent Sessions: 7**

Sarah J. Fishback and Cheryl J. Polson
Cognitive Development of Undergraduate Students
Meeting Room 1

Second Presentation of Student Research Winner
Meeting Room 2A

Deryl Davis-Harrison and Larry Martin
Low-Literate Blue-Collar Male Workers: Non-Participation in Adult Literacy Programs
Meeting Room 2B

Paul Holtorf

Pooling it Together: A Grounded Theory Based on a Cohort's Learning Experience in a Degree Completion Program
Conference Room 2

Discussion

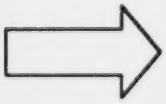
Planning and Organizing the 1999 Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference in St. Louis
Conference Room 1

12:30- 2:00 p.m. Luncheon

Keynote Presentation:
"Learning in Adulthood: The Individual and Contextual Perspectives"

Dr. Rosemary Caffarella, Ph.D.
University of Northern Colorado

This presentation will give an overview of the two primary perspectives that have driven research and practice in adult education over the past twenty-five years. The first perspective, that of focusing on the learning process of individual learners, was the predominate way of thinking about adult learning until this past decade. Representative lines of inquiry in this perspective include the information processing framework of cognition and memory, brain-based learning, and some theories of intelligence and aging and cognitive development. In the second perspective the context within which adults learn becomes an essential component of the learning process. A contextual approach to learning encompasses two important dimensions: the interactive and the structural. The interactive dimension acknowledges that learning is a product of the individual interacting with the context. Adult educators' historical advocacy of social programs, as well as recent theories of situated cognition, reflective practice, and cognitive development are exemplary of this interactive dimension. The structural dimension includes consideration of factors such as race, class, gender, cultural diversity, and power and oppression. My basic belief is that both perspectives inform our practice as adult educators. They can in fact be brought together, providing a more comprehensive platform than either perspective does by itself from which to design adult learning activities.



Mark your calendars!!!

The 1999 Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference in Adult, Continuing, and Community Education will be hosted by

University of Missouri-St. Louis

September 22-24, 1999

Check out their website!!!

http://www.umsl.edu/~itc/midwest.html

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1998 Conference Information has been posted on the Internet:

http://www.bsu.edu/teachers/departments/edld/conf

WHAT MATTERS IN PLANNING A CONFERENCE?: A SELF-STUDY BY MEMBERS OF THE PLANNING COMMITTEE FOR THE SEVENTEENTH ANNUAL MIDWEST RESEARCH-TO-PRACTICE CONFERENCE

Ahmed K. Ahmed
Pierre Atchade
Jean Fleming
Mary Margaret Webber

ABSTRACT

This paper reviews a process of self-study undertaken by four members of the planning committee of this year's Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference. In addition to supporting the contention that planning theory does not match planning practice, this collaborative, reflective process of inquiry led to the identification of four perspectives that expand current planning models: the role of leadership, human relations, critical perspectives, and budgeting. The research methodology is also detailed.

Conference History

The Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference was initiated by Northern Illinois University (NIU) in 1982. After three years at NIU, the decision was made to move the conference to different universities: Michigan, Indiana, Ohio, Missouri, Kansas, Nebraska, Minnesota, Wisconsin and Pennsylvania have all been hosts. The conference steering committee has grown accordingly, as local planners join and original members remain committed.

Program Planning: Theory and Practice

"In theory there is no difference between theory and practice. But in practice, there is" (Jan van de Snepschent, n.d.). Program planning is a primary responsibility of adult and continuing educators (Caffarella, 1994, and Cervero, 1988) and "planning practice matters in adult education because the programs will make the world a different place" (Cervero & Wilson, 1994, p.5). Knox (1991) maintains program development comprises the largest portion of scholarly and professional literature in adult education. Yet planners rarely use the planning frameworks found there: Although usually highly prescriptive and technical in nature, these frameworks do not adequately reflect the realities and nuances of actual planning practice (Cervero, 1988; Cervero & Wilson, 1994; Sork & Caffarella, 1989). Our experiences on the 1998 Midwest Conference planning committee support this assertion.

Over time, myriad planning models have been offered in the literature. Most, however, include tasks such as assessing needs, defining objectives, developing learning experiences, and evaluating. Recently, certain additions are noticeable. Cervero and Wilson (1994) focus on the "political richness, ethical dilemmas, and practical judgments of planning practices," (p. 6), viewing planning as "a social activity in which people negotiate personal and organizational interests" (p. 4). Sork (1997) traces the integration of "new sensitivities and understandings" derived from developing interests in feminisms, multiculturalism, critical theory, and

postmodernism, proposing a "question-based approach. . . [that] acknowledges the unique character of every planning situation" (pp. 5-6).

Methodology

Our study has allowed us to build on this lengthy yet continuously evolving foundation of planning. We are all members of the Seventeenth Annual Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference planning committee. In fall, 1997, as part of a class on program planning, we began keeping reflective journals on our experiences as members of this committee. We were surprised at how quickly we discovered differences between theory and practice. As Schon (1983) states, "much reflection-in-action hinges on the experience of surprise" (p. 56). The impetus for our study was found: we determined to meet, reflect, and document our perceptions.

General questions to guide our study were defined during early meetings: Did we see any models or particular perspectives on planning being followed during, or between, planning committee meetings? Were values, beliefs, and other ethical considerations ever discussed? Did we notice facets of planning that were missing from the planning frameworks we had studied in the literature? Did we have what we needed to do our assigned tasks?

Strategies

We attended committee meetings and then met to collaboratively reflect on the planning process. We have met ten times since January and will continue to meet until just after the October conference. We have reviewed, questioned, argued, refined, and finally written our perspectives of the planning process in which we are engaged. We have compared perceptions and questioned "what went on" in the planning committee meetings. We have analyzed how decisions are made and assigned tasks completed. We have examined assumptions and expectations we perceive to exist and questioned why and how certain tasks are done. We clarified our perspectives on what was missing from the literature and identified what we considered essential to meeting our planning responsibilities. To direct our discussions, we considered three dimensions of planning, the technical, socio-political, and ethical, as proposed by Sork (1997).

Emerging Insights

As a result of examining our perceptions of our conference planning experience, we identified several emerging areas of concern: (a) cultural considerations; (b) the influence of individual personalities in adhering to specific planning models; (c) specific strategies for negotiation and relationship building; (d) financial concerns; (e) influences of personal agendas, gender, race, class, and status; (g) the evolution of planning groups; (h) professional artistry (Schon, 1987, 1983) and intuition in planning; and (i) leadership in planning. We synthesized these areas into four categories, although we were unable to explore all of them in depth: leadership, human relationships, critical perspectives, and budgeting. Due to feelings of personal and professional connection, each of us logically became responsible for the development and writing of one of these four areas.

Comments

We were curious about program planning and developed a process by which we could investigate. We consider ourselves critically reflective practitioners engaged in a systematic process of inquiry. As a result of our collaboration, we have constructed new perspectives and

understandings of the planning process. Using the definition of research from Merriam and Simpson (1995), that "research is a systematic process by which we know more about something than we did before engaging in the process" (p. 2), we maintain we have, and continue to conduct research. We have drawn most heavily on concepts from reflection-*in*-action (Schon, 1987, 1983), from action research (Quigley & Kuhne, 1997), and from collaborative inquiry (Reason, 1988). Perspectives on the social construction of knowledge drawing on Habermas' work, and the emergent nature of qualitative research design (Merriam & Simpson, 1995) provided further support for our research approach.

Perspectives on Planning Practice

Each section provides a synthesis of our discussions and identifies implications for practice, often in the form of questions we recommend planners ask. We are all newcomers to this conference, although one of us has extensive experience in conference planning. Our newness has allowed us some fresh perspectives on the process, while also limiting our understanding of tradition and history associated with this event. Our ideas often originated from our own perceived lack of skills and authority to do our assigned tasks, and our perception of a lack of criteria upon which to make decisions

Leadership

As members of the conference planning committee we all fulfill a leadership role. The majority of us, however, come to the table with no skills or training in conference planning. How then do we, as leaders, ensure the conference is a success? A surprising amount of our discussion revolved around the composition of any committee. Conference planners need to pick "the right people" to serve. In addition to being responsible and dependable, members of a committee also need to bring a diversity of expertise and a variety of perspectives, or frames (Bolman & Deal, 1997), through which the process and event can be understood. This diversity assures all technical tasks can be accomplished and also leads the committee toward embracing tenets of balanced and ethical practice. Committee membership should reflect the demographic profiles, interests, and needs of expected attendees and, of those who should have the option to become conference attendees.

As newcomers we were particularly attuned to a lack of documented mission, history and guidelines with which decisions could be made: our need for philosophical underpinnings was strong. We needed to know what would make this conference "a success." Will the multi-state steering committee decide to write a mission statement, or document the history of this conference to acculturate new members of the committee and capture the rich heritage of this annual gathering? Would a conference handbook of guidelines be looked upon as too much professionalization of a process that has flourished on oral tradition and shared understandings throughout the years? Would such an attempt be seen as unwelcome standardization, a concern for consistent quality, or as a support for planners?

We also wrestled with notions of power and authority. We were unclear about our ability to take the initiative to complete tasks we had been assigned. Was this due to our status as students or new faculty? Gender? Or just experience level? Where did the power and authority to act come from? The need to set norms for committee meetings and for the overall process was the next logical possibility to explore. What was expected behavior and appropriate participation during meetings? How do we ensure all members of the committee have an equal voice?

Questions from a Critical/Feminist Perspective

Certain incidents focused us on discovering tacit assumptions underlying common practice. The seemingly trivial nature of these incidents is actually the trigger to recognizing the need to examine them more closely. Early in the planning process, when it became apparent an administrative assistant would be unable to take committee meeting minutes, it was assumed the one female doctoral assistant on the committee would take over the task. Why was this assumption made? Gender? Student status? Was either reason acceptable? Later in the year, another committee member mentioned bringing one of her children to an upcoming meeting. This engendered our first consideration of childcare. When planning a conference, what steps should be taken to ensure conference participants, including single parents for example, are available both physically and mentally for a learning experience?

Another decision of the committee led to a much more complex discussion. When planning the menus for conference meals, arrangements for vegetarian as well as religious dietary needs were made. Animal rights activists and people of faith can both offended by something as seemingly benign as choices of menu. Other group interests began to be considered, such as scheduling around religious obligations. While committed to diversity, how can conference planners honor all interests and orientations? Some conflict, plus the sheer number of potential preferences and limitations could prove paralyzing to a planner. The goal is not to avoid inclusion, but to create means by which it becomes ethically possible.

Finally, we noted that during committee meetings, those who are new, female, international, and/or of student status often struggled with knowing when and how to contribute to the process. Our perception was that our ideas were more readily heard when supported by senior faculty. Perhaps the key was their seniority, perhaps it was their history with this conference. Regardless of the reason, with these perceptions graduate assistants were often hesitant to contribute judgments on a topic or issue. When planning a conference, should an egalitarian climate be created in which all members are acknowledged as having an equal voice in the planning process, regardless of official status outside the conference committee? We felt an explicit agreement should be made to avoid stereotyping based on factors such as gender, ethnicity, or status as a means of fostering communication and cooperation.

Human Relationshipsin Program Planning

Two inter-related perspectives need consideration when focusing on the human relationships in conference planning. The first considers culture; the second features the "human touch." Planning models in American literature fail to inform us how people from other cultures operate and are thus inappropriate and ineffective in different cultures. When working in an Arab culture, for example, it takes a longer time to build the human relationships necessary to doing business than to do the business itself. It might take someone doing business with the Saudis a week or even a month to build the needed rapport and trust, yet only ten minutes to do the business at hand. Planners must know the language and protocols of interaction particular to the cultures within which they are working.

The concept of the human touch draws from different cultural perspectives that emphasize human relationships. Some program planning models tell us "how to" in great detail (Caffarella, 1994) and some explain the process of negotiating power and interests (Wilson & Cervero, 1994). Yet no model (to our knowledge) tells us how to get people who have no desire or interest in what we are doing to help us do what we need to do. I define the concept of "human touch" as the unspoken magical power that makes people willingly and happily want to help someone just

because that someone makes them feel good about helping him or her. The skills of developing personal connections are of particular importance for committees composed of volunteers who may generously donate their time, but who typically lack needed skills. This dilemma necessitates involving others who are not concerned with a pressing "cause."

The human touch, this development of a personal connection, played a major role in helping me create the conference web-page. I had no experience in designing web-pages and assumed one of the professors would explain to me what to do. Unfortunately, none of them knew any more than I. Throughout approximately one and one-half months of seeking help throughout the university, I determined that our conference was not important to anyone except to those of us intimately involved with it; thus, no one shared my enthusiasm for helping me perform my job. I recognized the importance of communicating the value of a program before as well as after its implementation (Caffarella, 1994) to obtain needed expertise, support, and resources. I also decided I had to use a tactic other than merely asking for assistance.

Through developing personal connections I was finally able to complete the project. In one case, I lent an attentive ear to hear an individual's personal difficulties as a foreign national trying to make it in a different culture. She spent hours of personal time crafting and improving the web-page. I accomplished my task, not by negotiating power and interests as discussed by Wilson & Cervero (1994), but by using the power of the human touch to get things done by making people feel good about doing them. We also examined the ethical dimensions of this belief. I see myself as being sensitive to the human need to feel good about one's self and about helping others. I do not believe I manipulated anyone to get a job done which, to my mind, would have been unethical.

The Budgeting Process

The preparation of a conference budget can be considered a "mini program planning" process within the overall effort. Budgeting is a process of transforming educational program outcomes into monetary terms (Caffarella, 1994). The budget functions as a traffic light, helping planners avoid accidents; by regulating the flow of income and expenditures, the budget contributes to efforts made to meet conference mission and goals. The financial person must keep monetary concerns at the forefront of decision-making and must require committee members to produce accurate expense projections. As I started preparing the budget, I looked for models and conference histories but found none. Since Michigan State University had just hosted last year's conference, however, I requested a copy of their financial report. I also referred to the budget format found in Galbraith, Sisco, and Guglielmino (1997). I still lacked information. What resources were available to begin conference planning? Did we have enough? Did we intend to have a net income from the conference? I felt I was the only member of the committee concerned about the monetary outcomes of the conference, yet I decided to give myself the authority to help the conference be monetarily successful. Although the budget I presented to the planning committee was welcomed, I continued to struggle with the best way of handling the conference budgeting process.

Although I have expertise in establishing budgets, I have lacked the authority to make decisions. We feel that, with guidance from the multi-state steering committee, local committee members should determine at the outset the desired monetary outcomes of the of the conference. A budget can then be devised for the conference to either "break even" or produce a net income. If the decision is to produce income, what are the best ways of achieving that goal? Is it ethical to request funding from local community foundations or sponsorships from local businesses?

Professors of program planning should place greater emphasis on budgeting in their planning classes.

Conclusion

In 1986, Merriam noted that several questions focusing on defining practitioners, practice, researchers, and research had "haunted the steering committee deliberations for the Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference 1983-1985" (p. 1). From Merriam's subsequent examination of the research-to-practice dilemma, several recommendations emerged: greater use of collaborative research methods, researchers engaged in practice, and practitioners engaged in reflective discussion on a systematic and ongoing basis. We believe this study exemplifies these recommendations. We further believe this study is one example of an accessible approach to research that has the potential for resulting in practical, useable knowledge. In support of this belief, our involvement in planning now includes a focus on leadership, human relationships, budgeting, and critical examination.

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Ahmed K. Ahmed, Pierre Atchade, Jean Fleming, Mary Margaret Webber
Department of Educational Leadership TC915, Ball State University, Muncie, IN 47306

FACULTY MOTIVATIONS FOR LEARNING TO TEACH AT A DISTANCE WITH INSTRUCTIONAL TECHNOLOGY

Rebecca D. Armstrong

ABSTRACT

Higher education's environment is changing--fueled in part by instructional technology--and as a result the management and delivery of higher education is changing. Distance education technologies--via audio, video or computer--afford institutions unique opportunities to deliver education and training programs to geographically diverse adult audiences for undergraduate and graduate credit, as well as provide continuing professional education opportunities in collaboration with business and industry. However, institutions have been slow to provide faculty with the support which facilitates participation to teach at a distance with instructional technology. As part of a larger, exploratory, qualitative research project, this paper reports on the influences and reasons found which motivated faculty members to undertake this learning project--to teach at a distance with instructional technology--when not required to attend formal training prior to teaching. The findings suggest that the influences and reasons which motivated faculty members to initiate their learning (e.g., visible administrative encouragement, the opportunity, student access to courses and programs, availability of technology, being a risk taker, funding, etc.) varied by institution, gender, and the faculty member's level of experience in distance teaching.

Introduction

Higher education's environment is changing--fueled in part by instructional technology--and as a result the management and delivery of higher education is changing. Distance education technologies--via audio, video or computer--afford institutions the opportunity to deliver educational programs to geographically diverse adult audiences for undergraduate and graduate credit, as well as provide continuing professional education opportunities in collaboration with business and industry. Numerous authors have written about the need for institutions to attend to their most important resource--their faculty--as institutions push forward offering distance learning courses and programs. However, even with the recognized importance of faculty members in distance education, very little research has been conducted on this group. In 1992, Dillon and Walsh reviewed five distance education journals and the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) locating just 24 research studies on faculty and issues concerning faculty participation in distance education. Of those studies, 13 focused on faculty attitudes, motivations for teaching at a distance, barriers to teaching at a distance, and the academic status of those involved in distance teaching. More recently, several dissertation studies have explored the attitudes of higher education faculty toward distance education and many recommend more training for faculty to increase acceptance of distance education technology.

If institutions want to encourage their faculty members to engage in distance education teaching, it seemed important to understand from a faculty members' perspective, what influenced them to engage in this learning project--learning how to teach at a distance with instructional technology--and why they began this learning project. Conducted as part of a larger, exploratory, qualitative research project which examined how faculty members learned to teach at a distance with instructional technology--when not required to attend formal training prior to teaching--this paper presents findings on the influences and reasons found which motivated faculty members to

undertake this learning project. Also discussed are implications for practice for faculty development professionals and other charged with encouraging and supporting faculty members' learning to teach at a distance.

Methodology

Because very little literature links faculty members' (as adult learners) continuing professional development and education in their work environment with a new medium of teaching (or similar "problem" such as teaching at a distance) an exploratory, qualitative approach was taken with this study. With this approach the researcher sought to gain a more holistic understanding of the context and process(es) faculty members experience in their continuing professional development as teachers at a distance. The qualitative methodology chosen involved in-depth telephone interviews which were taped and transcribed, followed by a constant-comparative analysis of the data which involved coding, category development and comparison of emerging themes to generate substantive grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

A purposeful sampling procedure was used to select the four participating institutions and 28 faculty members. All institutions were actively engaged in distance education using instructional technology and had offered a voluntary, formal distance education orientation program of at least one hour's duration within the year prior to initiation of the study, yet none of the institutions required faculty members to attend any training workshop or program prior to teaching at a distance with instructional technology. Diversity in the pool of participants was sought through maximum variation (purposeful) sampling. The characteristics which defined this diversity were: experience/interest in teaching at a distance with instructional technology[1], discipline, gender, and academic rank. Since the participants sought in this study were faculty members who were not required to participate in training prior to teaching at a distance, this learning project served as self-directed learning in the context of their work place, a formal educational environment. Qualitative data was obtained during semi-structured, conversational telephone interviews conducted with faculty members at three land-grant institutions and one regional university.

Prior to initiating the full study, a pilot study was conducted at one institution to refine interview questions and entry protocol. Additional measures to enhance the credibility and trustworthiness of the research, such as data triangulation, dense description of research methods and a code-recode procedure, interrater reliability determination with two independent peer coders, thick description of context and individual participants, and, the keeping of several different journals such as field notes, methodological notes, logistical records, and a thoughts and analysis notebook were employed (Krefting, 1991; Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Conceptual Framework

Distance education is an applied field and as such, this study drew on the literature in several fields to build the conceptual framework for design and a grounding for understanding and interpretation of the data. Distance education provided the context for this study and as such, it's growth and incorporation into higher education, as well as it's role in adult education and re-careering were reviewed. The role of faculty development programs in higher education was

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[1]Experience/interest: Beginners were just thinking about teaching at a distance; Novices were preparing to teach their first course; and, Experienced participants were in the process of teaching their first course when interviewed or had taught at least one semester long course.

reviewed and the need for formal faculty development and training programs for teaching at a distance with instructional technology was highlighted. The last topic reviewed began with adult learning from the perspective that faculty members are professionals engaged in continuing professional education as adult learners. In addition, this focus included faculty members as adult professionals engaged in a process of self-directed learning in their workplace.

As of Fall 1995, in a survey conducted by the National Center for Education Statistics, fully one-third of all higher education institutions offered distance education courses and 62% of the public four year institutions offered distance education courses. Numerous authors have addressed how significant distance education courses and programs can be thereby enabling an institution to reach new market segments and generate new revenues. However, in order to accomplish these goals, faculty members need to become involved with teaching at a distance. An awareness of the reasons why these adults--faculty members--undertook this self-directed learning project, and what influenced them in the context of their work environment to begin this learning project was needed.

Tough's (1971) research on adult's learning projects set the stage for many studies that followed and verified his findings. Among his findings was that almost all adults undertake major learning projects each year and that this learning is initiated for many reasons such as curiosity, interest, enjoyment or practical reasons. Faculty members in their professional roles as teacher-scholars reflect the adult learner's orientation toward learning, that is: learning to solve problems and questions or address responsibilities they have in their everyday life (Knowles, 1980).

Dillon and Walsh (1992) in their review of the distance education literature on faculty members cite research which suggested that faculty members were motivated to teach at a distance by intrinsic rewards--prestige and self-esteem--rather than extrinsic or monetary rewards. They go on to cite additional studies which identify other factors which are motivating to faculty. More recently, in the attempt to recruit faculty members to teach at a distance, studies have looked at what factors influence participation in distance teaching. One study in particular by Olcott & Wright (1995), proposed an institutional support framework for increasing faculty participation in postsecondary distance education.

Olcott and Wright (1995) described two major barriers found in the literature which inhibit faculty members from participation in distance teaching. The first barrier was concerned with faculty members' perception that developing distance education courses may undermine their autonomy and control of the course. The other major barrier to participation encompasses the broad area of compensation, training, and incentive structures for teaching at a distance. Many of the issues subsumed in this second barrier were affected by the priority given to distance education by institutions and academic units which in turn was reflected in administrative support and leadership. Wolcott (1997) reported on the findings of her study which examined the relationship between distance teaching and the faculty reward system at four research institutions. She described a culture that does not accommodate or reward faculty involvement in distance education.

Findings

Faculty members' learning to teach at a distance was stimulated through two main avenues: factors within the institution that support and encourage participation in distance education teaching with instructional technology such as availability of funding, variety of technology, and administrative encouragement; and secondly, personal influences such as curiosity, a personal benefit, risk-taking and viewing this as an opportunity stimulated them.

These "conditions" cause them to initiate their learning project, that is, begin their exploration of how to teach at a distance. This stimulation of their learning as well as the context in which they predominately learn about distance teaching was a formal institutional setting and their work environment.

Beginners listed three main influences--administrative encouragement, opportunity and providing student access to programs and courses--as their main influences. Novices keep administrative encouragement as a factor and added prior experience with technology and being a "techie", the importance of distance education to higher education, and a curiosity about teaching at a distance as influences. Excluding the two participants--#1 and #25--who were told they would be teaching at a distance, experienced participants identified the following influences in decreasing importance: funding or financial issues; opportunity; personal benefit; support services; administrative encouragement; availability of technology and interest in technology. Importance was reflected in the number of times an influence was mentioned which usually reflected the emphasis the participant placed on that topic or issue. Participants as they get closer to actually teaching appear to have more detailed and personalized reasons or rationalizations for why they started this learning project. More experienced participants may also upon reflection, recognize and recall with more detail all the influences that may have contributed to their initiation of this learning project.

When data in this study was analyzed by institution, several key influences pertaining to why faculty members began this learning project were identified. The participants at Institution A, C and D--the land-grant schools--identified funding (financial) issues and at Institutions A and D, the availability and variety of technology, as important to their initiation of this learning project. Initiation of this learning project as a result of altruistic reasons for higher education at Institutions A and C may reflect in part, an institutional cultural belief which stressed the academic status of distance education at their institution. The presence of influences such as delivery of programs and service to the students for Institution B was in stark contrast to the absence of such influences at the land-grant institutions who have outreach as one of their missions. In addition, at Institution B, participation in distance education resulted in a personal benefit that was not as obvious at other institutions. Furthermore, participants at the land-grant institutions as a group did not appear to be receiving any direct administrative encouragement to engage in distance teaching. Other institutional influences present, such as being required or asked to teach at a distance which occurred most frequently at Institution A, also reflected the influence of administrators on distance education. The institutional effect at the land-grant institutions contrasted with the effect of the institution on initiation (and participation) in this learning project at Institution B.

It was interesting to find that the reasons individuals at Institution B gave as influencing them to start this learning project--visible administrative encouragement, opportunity, and student access to programs and courses--are the same reasons and in the same order as beginners were found to have. At Institution B, the administrators' role in affecting the institutional culture--by visibly addressing the importance of distance education and encouraging faculty members to participate--was an important and nearly unanimous influence for participants. This influence, coupled with the institutional belief that the delivery of education to remote sites--thereby providing access to courses or programs and better serving students--was important were reflected in Olcott and Walsh's (1995) model of what should be included in an institutional support system for encouraging participation in distance teaching. What their model did not

account for were what might be viewed as the more personal influences which stimulated faculty members to initiate this learning project.

Taylor and White (cited in Dillon & Walsh, 1992) described research that suggested faculty members teaching at a distance are motivated by intrinsic rewards--prestige and self esteem--rather than extrinsic rewards. They report that faculty members identified some of the benefits of distance teaching as; "the ability to reach new populations of learners, the opportunity to work with better prepared and more motivated students . . . the ability to use a broader range of media-based resources" (Dillon & Walsh, 1992, p. 10). In this study, participants expressed personal influences as curiosity, the opportunity distance teaching presented, or there being a personal benefit (no driving to extension courses) as reasons why they initiated this learning project.

In addition to the aforementioned influences on initiation of this learning project--analyzed by experience and institution--other personal influences became evident when the data was analyzed by gender. For women, having personal characteristics of being a risk-taker and a "techie", contributed to their initiation of this learning project. However, for men, their previous or current involvement in independent study or extension as part of their professional role influenced them to initiate this learning project. Overall, for men as a group, personal characteristics played a very minor role in the initiation of this learning project.

Implications for Practice

Keeping in mind the limitation of generalizing from a qualitative study, these findings suggest issues and factors that should be considered when seeking to motivate faculty to learn about teaching a distance with technology. Experienced participants provide both a historical perspective--as some reflect on almost ten years of distance teaching--and a more current perspective for participants engaged in teaching for the first time when interviewed. This may provide reasons and information which could facilitate motivating faculty members to initiate a learning project in distance education as well as project what issues are important over time (or in retrospect) for faculty members. For instance, discussions with faculty members thinking about teaching at a distance may focus more on the opportunity this presents for them which needs to be reflected in the institutional culture and administrative encouragement. In contrast, experienced faculty members are stimulated more by the availability of funding.

Olcott and Wright (1995) suggested a cadre of pioneering faculty be developed and that through them, new faculty members would be recruited to distance teaching. All of the institutions studied showcased their pioneering faculty members in various forums to a greater or lessor degrees. However, except for one person, no participant mentioned initiating his or her learning project because someone else was doing it (teaching at a distance). For participant #10, her senior colleague's participation in distance teaching by interactive video peaked her interest in the technology and distance teaching, however, other influences serendipitously combined to stimulate her to begin her learning project when she did. Although other faculty participants mentioned engaging in team-teaching maybe participant #15's role as a mentor to #10, in addition to modeling distance teaching and team-teaching with her, are additional ingredients needed to have experienced faculty members attract new participants to distance teaching. Pairing faculty members new to distance teaching with experienced instructors and utilizing team-teaching strategies, modeling and mentoring activities may be the combination necessary for some faculty members--especially junior faculty members--to get involved.

For people involved in recruiting faculty members, recognition that for women, personal characteristics may play an important role in initiating their learning while men are more likely to be influenced by institutional factors. However, institutions can--through their administrators, policies, support staff and the availability of technology--foster a culture which encourages faculty members to initiate their learning about teaching at a distance with technology.

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Rebecca D. Armstrong, D.V.M., Ph.D.
P. O. Box 461
Burlington, IN 46915
E-mail: <rda@carlnet.org>

THE USE OF LITERATURE IN QUALITATIVE RESEARCH: A PRACTITIONER DRIVEN CASE STUDY

Ann Austin
Wayne A. Babchuk

ABSTRACT

Adult educators who design and conduct studies around issues or problems germane to adult education have traditionally applied research methodologies borrowed from the social sciences and other disciplines of education. Often, however, these researchers fail to specify why they chose one design over another and provide little critical insight regarding the specifics of their research. This practitioner-driven case study explores one central aspect of qualitative designs relating to the timing and infusion of the professional literature throughout the research process. Our goal is to help fascilitate critical dialogue surrounding this key component of qualitative research through a discussion of existing approaches as well as examples derived from our own practitioner-based inquiry.

QUALITATIVE DESIGNS AS A FIT FOR ADULT EDUCATION RESEARCH

Scholars and practitioners in social sciences and education have witnessed a dramatic increase over the past decade in the use of qualitative methodologies for conducting research. Specifically, in adult and higher education, Lifendahl (1995) systematically documented an increase in the use of qualitative methodologies in a review of doctoral dissertations and the concurrent decline of the use of quantitative methodologies. This phenomenon can be partially attributed to the natural fit of qualitative methods to the practice settings of adult education. Adult educators not only search for evidence of learning, but are interested in the transformative process that the learning plays within the adult learner. Practitioners continue to analyze and observe the phenomenon of learning with the desire to build and strengthen the theoretical foundations of the field. By designing and conducting meaningful and rigorous research, adult educators and researchers support the philosophy of practice within the field. The strong commitment of adult education to improving practice, the natural fit of the research setting, and the lack of a well-developed theoretical base unique to adult education, all offer potential for further growth and rigor in the design and use of qualitative methods.

Qualitative designs differ from more traditional quantitatively-oriented methodologies in a number of ways relating to both their epistemological underpinnings and associated operational properties. Unlike traditional quantitative approaches which often hinge on the testing of theory derived from the literature, qualitative research can effectively facilitate the development of theory from practice. In spite of the increased popularity of qualitative designs, few analysts critically assess their research or reasons for choosing one particular design over another.

Rather than test or build on a theory from the discipline, it is common for adult educators to gear their research toward the design and implementation of meaningful practice interventions. Further, once a research methodology is chosen, few researchers critically examine the elements within the research model to determine an appropriate fit to the research question or setting. Research methodologies are readily borrowed from other disciplines with the assumption that the design is appropriate. Despite the struggles that exist in choosing and employing a particular research strategy, adult education is well served by qualitative inquiry. In adult and continuing education, the time is ripe for researchers and practitioners to engage in critical and ongoing dialogue around the central components, assumptions, and uses of qualitative methods.

PROGRESSION OF RESEARCH METHODOLOGIES

For the most part, the traditional path to learning and thinking about research grows from foundations in the quantitative paradigm. The development and learning of qualitative forms of research usually take a back seat and fewer students are exposed to naturalistic approaches. As students graduate and apply their knowledge within professions and practice, these influences remain. Thus, the progression of learning and exposure to research methods often creates a lens through which practitioners filter information and decisions when determining an approach to analyzing and improving practice. As a result, struggles result within academic departments, in business and industry, and even within dissertation committees over the rigors and contribution of each paradigm when making research decisions.

Qualitative researchers in fields such as health care where quantitative methods are the norm, find a constant pressure to "fit" within the traditional quantitative paradigm. Attempts to discover the emotional, social or spiritual side of a disease process are often aborted by lack of support or funding as qualitative studies don't seem to fit within the quantitatively driven medical research model. Studies that focus on patient coping strategies are overshadowed by scientific studies that promise progress towards a prevention or cure. Within universities, chasms along the research continuum exist amongst faculty influencing research agendas and student advisement through the dissertation process. Students employing qualitative methods for dissertation study find themselves attempting to organize, report, and write their dissertations using the prescribed quantitative-influenced template required by academic units (Meloy, 1994). Qualitative studies are subject to scrutiny and often undue criticism as methods are regarded as loosely defined and less rigorous in comparison with quantitatively driven research. A defensive struggle to establish and maintain rigor within qualitative approaches against the highly influential and political context of quantitative inquiry continues to perpetuate confusion and divisiveness, impeding progress towards the development of sound qualitative methodologies. The necessary critical dialogue for improvement of research design and methods rarely occurs amongst qualitative researchers as issues of recognition and credibility remain in the forefront.

A CRITICAL LOOK AT THE USE OF LITERATURE IN QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS

One seemingly critical methodological difference between quantitative and qualitative methodologies centers on how researchers utilize the professional literature in their research. In traditional forms of quantitative inquiry, knowledge of the literature within a discipline plays a major role in the investigation by enabling the analyst to identify previous research and gaps in understanding. The literature helps by suggesting theoretical and conceptual frameworks to guide the research and analysis and can help to identify important variables and relationships between them. The research questions and problem statement are often derived from this literature base. Conversely, the literature in qualitative research is used to aid in the discovery of themes and insights from the research setting rather than to generate preconceived hypothesis for testing. Within the qualitative paradigm, a variety of methods and approaches to obtaining data may be sought, posing an additional challenge to how and when the researcher chooses to consult the literature. One researcher may see the professional and technical literature as an important element in a study, while another may see the literature as a very small part of the emergent discovery. Hence, an analyst's approach to using the literature can not only affect the initial formulation of the research question or problem, but can influence and even alter the direction of the research questions and interpretation of the data.

There is often a gray area between the stage when a study becomes formal and the researcher begins intentional thought about data sources and supporting literature. In qualitative analyses, the literature more often takes a less prominent role in the beginning stages, gradually building in importance as the study proceeds. During this formative stage, research questions and objectives are often emergent and the timing and infusion of literary influence can be tenuous and problematic. The researcher-practitioner may move in and out of the literature informally during a problem solving mode before deciding if the problem warrants a formal study, has potential for building theory or may provide a meaningful contribution to the continuance and improvement of practice or further study. This pre-study stage of tacit development is often heavily influenced by random or intentional exposure to ideas, models, concepts or theories as the researcher searches for information to aid to in solving a dilemma or answering a question (Marshall & Rossman, 1989). The researcher strives to balance issues of influence with the need for adequate information in order to discover and interpret meaning throughout the study. During this stage, the "personal, tacit theory and formal theory helps to bring the question, the curious phenomenon, or the problematic issue into focus" (Marshall & Rossman, p.22). Ultimately, the literature is used to frame the conclusions and implications of the research, helping to situate the study within the larger framework of the discipline. Given these considerations, decisions pertaining to the use of literature in qualitative inquiry are central to the nature and integrity of the research and impact the process and products of the study itself. So rises the questions of just when and how qualitative researchers should consult and use the literature within the conception, design and conducting of their research.

Methodologists who inform and guide researchers through the qualitative paradigm report differing views on the use of literature within a qualitative study (Babchuk, 1997). Use of the literature can be seen as a starting off point as a researcher develops sensitivity to the issue at hand. The technical literature can be used to determine research questions and act as a vital frame in situating the study within the broader context of the discipline. When making design decisions, the literature can guide and aid in framing and formulating initial research questions. (Marshall, Rossman, 1989) The literature is recommended as a source of data for use throughout a study to aid in defining themes or theories. During analysis of data or when using a constant comparative approach, discrepancies or differences between what others in similar situations observe or report can be sought, offering additional dimensions to the analysis and conclusions of the study. In Corbin and Strauss's (1990), *Basics of Qualitative Research* this spectrum is clearly reflected in their comments on the timing and purpose of literature within the grounded theory method of qualitative inquiry:

> All kinds of literature can be used before a research study is begun: both in thinking about and getting the study off the ground. They can also be used during the study itself, contributing to its forward thrust. In fact, there should also be some searching out of the literature (but not just technical) during the research itself, an actual interplay of reading literature and data analysis. So, in effect, we read and use published materials during all phases of the research. (p. 56)

On the other end of the spectrum, others approach the use of the literature cautiously and regard the beginning stages of most forms of qualitative study as a pure and emergent discovery period (see for example Glaser, 1992). As Patton (1990) suggests, the literature can even be problematic as it "can present a quandary in qualitative inquiry because it may bias the researcher's thinking and reduce openness to whatever emerges in the field" (p. 163). From this perspective a researcher may not even be aware or sensitive to which literature is pertinent as the meanings and themes are unknown, or emergent without preconceptions or loosely considered hypothesis. Since one of the main objectives of qualitative research is to explore in a direction where not much has been studied or written, the literature would presumably be scarce. According to Bogdan and Biklin (1992) some researchers intentionally avoid consultation with the literature as "reviewing the literature might be too influential in determining themes and a focus, thus curtail(ing) inductive analysis" (p. 75). If the goal is to describe a phenomenon, build a model or suggest a direction for a theoretical framework, the words and observations of the people involved should take prominence and the technical and professional literature should be of little aid (Creswell, 1994).

All of these variations and suggestions for approaching and using the literature in qualitative analysis is at best a series of trade-offs that evolve as the design of the study evolves (Patton, 1990). The decisions that a researcher makes throughout each stage of a study ultimately can have an important effect on the sensitivity, interpretation and conclusions. So follows a series of critical questions that researchers and practitioners should consider within the context of

qualitative research. These come to bear in the following example of a practitioner who grappled with the issue of literature use in an evaluation study.

A CASE STUDY: QUESTIONING THE USE OF LITERATURE

A practitioner in a hospital education department searched for a way to make program planning decisions that would help link the goals of the organization with the needs of the learners whom she served. The practitioner took an eight-week ASTD evaluation course to assist her with forming ideas and strategies during which she was exposed to articles, resources and peer dialogue. Professionally, she conducted a survey of other hospitals and queried the steering committee of a research conference to find out how other educators solved this dilemma. Some educators sent her materials and offered suggestions for further reading and investigation. Eventually, these efforts culminated in the development of a "decision making matrix". The "matrix" was piloted and received with positive reviews from the Education Committee who finally felt confident in their abilities to make good programming decisions.

Then one day, the practitioner woke up to find that she had a research question in her head. She wondered if the "matrix" was really linking needs to organizational strategies or if it just offered a false sense of encouragement to the decision makers. She wanted to evaluate the efficacy of the matrix. At this point, all of the dilemmas outlined in this paper came to bear as the practioner-researcher began to struggle with a strategy for investigation. She realized that the birth of the matrix was from tacit knowledge and wanted to turn to the literature for support. Concurrently, she avoided the literature with the fear that she would find other evidence or even a similar tool that would tempt her to change or improve the matrix. She wanted to prove the efficacy of the matrix as it stood in its infant form, but also wondered about other similar activities or tools. Very quickly she became keenly aware of the role that the literature could play and struggled with how to control the influence that it could have on the matrix and her temptation to improve or change it. She also felt that she needed to know about other attempts at developing similar tools. Her questions and dilemmas, although specific to one practice issue, can be applied to most inquiry:

1. When should a qualitative researcher consult the literature? At the beginning, middle or end of a study; or throughout the study?
2. How should the literature be considered in a study? Is it used to develop sensitivity, should it be used as formal data, or as a validation of research findings?
3. Should the literature be considered differently depending on the type of qualitative study that is being conducted? Does it play a different role in grounded theory work?

CONCLUSION

The desire to strengthen the theoretical foundations of adult education are evidenced by continuing research activities and forums that encourage the discovery of new ideas, strategies

for improved practice and inquiry that supports adult education foundations. While the qualitative paradigm is growing in its use and acceptance, adult educators need to persist in finding methods that are best suited for the field. Critical questions about design, data sources, and interpretation need to be pondered, examined and evaluated in search of methodologies that best serve the research setting and goals. Instead of readily accepting research methodologies from other disciplines, adult educators need to continue to critically assess these research methodologies and practices and modify them accordingly.

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Ann Austin, Director of Education, SSM Rehabilitation Hospital, 6420 Clayton Road, Suite 600 St. Louis, MO 63117 - 1861, raaustin@ssmhc.com, raaustin@stlnet.com

Wayne A. Babchuk, Program Specialist, Academic Conferences and Professional Programs, 156 NCCE, 33rd and Holdredge, University of Nebraska-Lincoln, Lincoln, NE 68583-9600 wbabchuk@unlinfo.unl.edu

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READING WOMEN'S LIVES: ONE MAN'S SEARCH FOR MEANING IN WOMEN'S BIOGRAPHY

Charles A. Baker-Clark

ABSTRACT

This study attempts to assess the quality of interpersonal relationships in the life of Margaret Mead. A review of three sources of biographical information reveals that Mead's relationships were complex and intense. This suggests that reading biographical information can be a useful experience for male adult learners. In addition, the results provide implications for the practice of scholarship.

Introduction

If you want to know me, then you must know my story, for my story defines who I am. And if I want to know myself, to gain insight into the meaning of my own life, then I, too, must come to know my own story. (McAdams, 1993, p.11)

A major purpose of using biography as a research method is to appreciate the complex set of relationships between individuals and the societal forces that influence them (Erben, 1996). The significance of using biographies rests upon the premise that life stories play an important role in forming our identities (Rosenwald, 1992). As Heilbrun (1988) states, our lives are lived by the telling of stories. The engagement with biography, especially biographical accounts of people different from the reader, can produce increased knowledge of human variety, and an appreciation of the lives of others (Erben, 1996). This increased knowledge can then provide an opportunity to create new life stories from an expanded reservoir of experiences.

Building upon a previous paper I wrote about the biographies of four outspoken women, (Baker-Clark, 1997) this study attempts to examine how one woman's biographical information might influence the life stories of men. The previous paper examined biographical information on Sojourner Truth, Lou Andreas-Salome, Simone de Beauviour and Gloria Steinem. In designing the current study, I decided to further extend this earlier paper by examining the quality of Margaret Mead's interpersonal relationships. The information that I used was from three primary sources including: Jane Howard's (1984) biography of Margaret Mead, Margaret Mead: A Life, Mary Catherine Bateson's (1984) story of Margaret Mead and Gregory Bateson, With a Daughter's Eye: A Memoir of Margaret Mead and Gregory Bateson, and Margaret Mead's (1972) autobiography, Blackberry Winter.

These three sources of information on Margaret Mead were examined from a feminist perspective that emphasizes collaboration in scholarship. (Dickens, 1995; Dickens & Sagaria, 1997). This study contains also elements of postmodernism. It is in the spirit of postmodernism that I hope to illuminate a source of knowledge from the periphery-the edges of scholarship. Overall, this study attempts to present what Geertz (1973) calls a thick description. Its thickness is derived from a microscopic view of one person that is able to uncover rich details. The information obtained is not part of what Geertz calls, "...an experimental science in search of laws..." (p. 5) It is, instead, an in-depth consideration of one person's life, that of Margaret Mead.

My study of Margaret Mead's life is from the perspective of a White, rapidly aging male graduate student. I chose to examine her life in the context of what Concha Delgado-Gaitan (1997) calls the borderland. She describes this as, "...a space where multiple cultures, multiple

consciousnesses and multiple possibilities exist-where a border is dissolved." (p. 37) It is also a space described by Giroux (cited in Bloland, 1995) where the shifting nature of negotiated and constructed realities allow people to rewrite their own histories and identities. It is in this borderland that I sought a place where I could examine multiple possibilities for myself, and write a new, expanded set of stories to incorporate into my future.

Results

The life of Margaret Mead presents an interesting mixture of contradictions. She has been described by Jane Howard as "the patron saint of the peripheral." (p. 13) However, she also grew up in a family that represented the academic elite in her society. Despite her position of academic and social privilege, however, she too experienced discrimination. In her autobiography, for example, Mead (1972) spoke of her social isolation at DePauw University, a campus where fraternities and sororities dominated the social life. She summarized her experience by saying that exclusion of students like her from the Greek-letter societies was often rationalized by the conviction that, "...students who were left out had not wanted to join or could not afford to do so. And the unchosen seldom chose to talk" (p. 96) Whether she found herself at the center or on the periphery, Margaret Mead connected with many people. It is the strength and richness of these connections that the remainder of this analysis seeks to describe.

From an early age, Margaret was exposed to the value of collaborative work. She described her father as always having "...a close male confederate in whatever extracurricular activity engaged his interest." (p. 33) Margaret also became a close confidant of her grandmother, and helped her mother gather data when she interviewed Italian immigrant families. In school, Margaret was able to find allies who could help her to make sense of even the most challenging circumstances. At DePauw, for example, she united with a group of outcasts called "The Minority" (Howard, 1984). Later, at Barnard College, Margaret joined a group of students called "The Ash Can Cats." This group created a network of support that lasted decades beyond Barnard. It was, however, Margaret's relationship with a bright graduate assistant that strongly influenced her choice of a career. Janet Howard (1984) described this when she spoke of Ruth Benedict whose "...enthusiasm for anthropology, a discipline she only recently discovered herself, was so infectious that it set the course of many careers, most notable Margaret Mead's." (p. 51) This relationship lasted for years, prompting Howard to state, "From its start twenty-five years earlier, their friendship had been a constant and deliberate mixture of work and love." (p. 271) It was this lifelong network of friends that prompted both Jane Howard and Mary Catherine Bateson to remark that Mead made a close friend every three to four months. And Mary Catherine (1984) went on to insist, "My mother never took me to Samoa or Bali or New Guinea, but it seems to me that the complex mosaic of friendships in which we moved provided as vivid an introduction to anthropology as any field trip would have." (p. 79)

The idea of sisterhood, the close emotional bond between women, is another motif that is revealed in Mead's life. Howard (1984) speaks of this when she says, "The power of sisterhood... came as no surprise to Margaret Mead. Her own sisters and then a succession of other sororities that only began with the Kappa Kappa Gammas of DePauw and the Ash Can Cats of Bernard, had long since made her aware of that force." (p. 362) Mead (1972) herself highlighted the depth of feelings attached to these relationship when she spoke of the relationship between sisters, "But above all, perhaps, sisters who have grown up close to one another know how their daydreams have been interwoven with their life experiences." (p. 70)

One area in which Margaret sustained many close relationships was in her work. A long-standing relationship with Larry Frank epitomized the kind of collaborations she had with others. Janet Howard (1984) describes Mead's meeting with,

> ...an unassuming-looking social scientist named Lawrence Kelso Frank, who told her of a big plan he had. He wanted to gather together a group of people representing different disciplines, so they could develop an outline of everything then known about the teaching of adolescents. (p. 175)

Mead (1972) later commented about her relationship with Frank, "I formed with Larry the same kind of working alliance that I formed long ago with Julian Gardy in Holicong. We worked and planned together, and he included me in one interdisciplinary enterprise after another." (p. 271)

The collaboration across disciplines became a theme in Mead's life. In another section of Mead's biography, Howard (1984) indicated that Mead and Gregory Bateson, "...hoped to establish a new relationship not only between themselves but between their own and other disciplines." (p. 184) Mead (1972) alluded to the potential for her relationship with Bateson when she described an early encounter between herself, Reo Fortune and Bateson, "...as the launch chugged slowly upstream on the broad, swiftly flowing river, we went on talking, intoxicated with the excitement of encountering someone so differently trained from ourselves." (p. 209)

In her work with students, Mead (1972) also revealed her value for interdisciplinary collaboration when she commented, " But nowhere are we preparing students for work of this kind by training them to work as anthropologists together with members of other disciplines." (p. 296) She also emphasized the need to provide support for students in the field, "Men who are now professors teach their students as their professors taught them, and if young fieldworkers do not give up in despair, go mad, ruin their health, or die, they do, after a fashion, become anthropologists." (p. 142) It is possible that statements such as this impelled people like Jane Howard to insist, "..her eye was always out for young talent to nurse along as she had been guided in her own youth by Franz Boas and Ruth Benedict." (p. 325)

The exuberance contained in Mead's words demonstrates the emotional intensity that often characterized her relationships. In describing her relationship with her second husband, Reo Fortune, Mead recalled, "But during those two years, we complimented each other in our enthusiasm and energy. We worked hard all day and rewarded each other by listening and discussing in the evening." (p. 185) Perhaps the depth of Margaret Mead's collaboration with others is revealed in her statement that she longed to be with, "...people of my own kind, people who had read the same books and would understand my allusions, people who would understand my work, people with whom I could discuss what I had been doing and would give me some perspective..." (p. 156) Thus, Mead's life represents two different but complementary interpersonal themes. On one hand, she was "intoxicated" with the new and different, but she was also comforted by the presence of those who shared her interests and understood her.

Margaret Mead's ability to collaborate closely with others made a substantial impact on many careers. In her biography of Mead, Howard (1984) indicated that Mead's second husband Reo Fortune described himself, "...as 'despairing, desperate, unfocused, not knowing what to do or why I was doing it.' He wrote to his mother 'I feel I could scarcely face another anthropological expedition without a partner." (p. 156) Mead's daughter Mary Catherine (1984) also remarked that her father Gregory was, "...far younger professionally, fixed in the styles of

academic bachelorhood, with only two slim articles in print and no clear sense where he was heading as an anthropologist." (p. 19) This was before Bateson met Margaret Mead. Mead's intense contributions to others' careers extended to a broad range of people in her life. Dr James Hamilton (Howard, 1984), a psychiatrist, recalled spending an hour with Mead discussing his preparation for the board examination. From her knowledge of the board members, Mead was able to help Hamilton prepare for questions he might encounter. This brief meeting prompted Hamilton to later say, "...in the course of that hour she became my psychotherapist..." (Howard, p. 333) This depth of commitment to other people seems to have characterized many of the relationships in which Margaret Mead engaged.

Margaret Mead's passion for connections with others was not limited to her professional life. At one point, for example, she along with her husband Gregory Bateson and their daughter Mary Catherine moved into Larry Frank's home. Their life in the large five-story home was, in Howard's (1984) words "intergenerational and real." (p. 175) This sentiment was echoed by Mary Catherine Bateson (1984) who said, "...I did not grow up in a nuclear family or as an only child, but as a member of a flexible and welcoming extended family..." (P. 38) Mead herself (1972) underscored the importance of this time in her life when she said, "Cloverly and Perry Street gave us a way of life that sustained us all throughout the war." (p. 271) One of Gregory Bateson's goddaughters, Philomena Guillebaud, recalled this time and noted that Gregory and Margaret seemed to use whoever was around as subjects. She informed Janet Howard, "...There were many many cases when I would catch Margaret and Gregory sort of cocking an eyebrow at each other because one of us had said something which was interesting." (p. 220) Thus, Mead's connections with so many people added depth and richness to her life.

Margaret Mead's laboratory was indeed the entire world. She seemed to learn from every relationship. But her relationship with subjects was quite complex. Karl Menninger, for example, commented "...what she really cared about were people--grotesque people, savage people, all people." (Howard, p. 337) Mead herself recalled, "Our training equipped us with a sense of respect for the people we would study. They were full human beings with a way of life that would be compared with our own and with the culture of any other people. No one spoke of the Kwakiutl or the Zuni-or any other people-as savages or barbarians." (p. 141) Later, Mead referred to the emotional bond she had with subjects, especially children, " I realized how homesick I had been and how starved for affection, a need that been met only in part when I held the Holt children in my arms or played with the Samoan babies." (p. 155) Mead also spoke of her connection with children, and its impact on her work, "It is the babies that keep me alive in contexts in which otherwise my sense of touch is seldom exercised." (p. 155) Finally, she expressed the warm empathy of caring for a child, a responsibility in which she "...learned what it must mean to a young child to be abruptly separated from everyone who can understand..." (p. 157) The depth of feeling associated with a wide range of relationships helped create a rich and interesting life. It is a life from which we can continue to draw, years after Margaret Mead's death.

Discussion

This paper illustrates the richness and complexity that can be discovered in reading biographical information-especially information about people who are much different than ourselves. The interpersonal relationships of Margaret Mead were complex, highly emotional, and frequently long-standing. Her life story challenges the ideas that independence and competition are important components of life. Indeed, Margaret Mead claimed that her ideas

were supposed to be shared with others. At one point, for example, she stated, "I leave ideas lying around like pencils...I want them to be stolen..." (Howard, 1984, p. 231) But Margaret shared more than her ideas, she shared herself.

Perhaps it is the sharing of the self that provides such a rich experience in biographical material. It is not simply a text of information, but a doorway that leads into another person's life. And as we readers interact with the other's life, we can visualize what we might do as a character in such a life. We become engaged in writing stories of our own. In the case of Margaret Mead, it is possible for her biographical material to demonstrate a different way to engage in scholarship. Currently, for example, there is considerable value for collaboration in academic work. In fact, words such as "co-learning" and "collaborative learning" have become staples in the current Lingua Franca of the academy. But how many of these "collaborative relationships" are based primarily upon projects, ideas, problems and structured interactions? How often do we in the academy only reflect on our relationships when they become problematic?

But this study is not simply an inquiry into the value of collaborative work, or relationships. It is a way through which adult learners can learn at a variety of levels other than cognition-through their hearts and souls. For men, this learning might include an appreciation for the positions in which women are frequently placed-a placement that occurs, at least in part, through the collaboration of men. Thus, reading and experiencing women's biographies can open doorways for other men to engage in their own border crossing into the borderlands-to create spaces for their own enriched life stories.

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Charles A. Baker-Clark
322 E. Greenlawn Ave.
Lansing, MI 48910
Bakercl1@pilot.msu.edu

FACULTY PERCEPTIONS OF ADULT STUDENTS AND THEIR LEARNING NEEDS

Karen Clark
Aleza Beverly

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this phenomenological research study was to investigate faculty's perceptions of adult students and their learning needs as well as how these faculty perceptions affected the methods utilized when teaching adults. Data was collected using three focus group interviews with a total of 18 university faculty that have taught in the evening adult education program of a four year church related university within the last two years. Data was analyzed into major categories and themes. The data findings were summarized into one central theme that cuts across the area of learning needs and teaching adults. That theme is accommodation. Students have needs that need accommodations and faculty, for the most part, perceived that they must make accommodations to enhance the teaching learning interaction.

America has shifted from a youth-centered to an adult-centered society with drastic implications for our whole educational enterprise. As the pool of teenagers has begun to shrink, colleges and universities have aggressively been recruiting adults to maintain tuition income as a matter of economic survival ("The Coming Enrollment Crisis," 1993). Educators have found the population most responsive, for in a world of accelerating change—especially with the knowledge explosion, the technology revolution, and the entry of women into the work force in massive numbers—adults have become aware that higher education is a matter of survival for them too. Adult students, 25 years of age and older, now make up close to 50 percent of all college enrollments in the United States (Aslanian, 1998). Yet with these unprecedented numbers of adults "graying" the college campuses, little has been changed in terms of teaching and learning that is taking place in the classroom.

Purpose of the Study/Research Questions

The purpose of this study was to investigate faculty perceptions of adult students and their learning needs. In addition, the study also investigated how these faculty perceptions affected the methods utilized when teaching adults. The research questions for this study were a direct outgrowth of the identified problems. The research questions for the study were:

1. How do faculty perceive the learning needs of adult/nontraditional students?
2. How do faculty perceptions about the adult learners affect the teaching methods that faculty utilize when working with adult students.

Definition of Terms

Apps (1992) indicates that the adult learner is one who has major work or family responsibilities. In order to be consistent with his definition and that of the Adult Education Department of the church related school involved in the study, adult or nontraditional students are considered to be those students who return to school with life experience, who are older than 24 years of age. These two terms will be used interchangeably. The term *traditional students* refers to those students who are 24 years of age or younger. They have entered college upon graduation from high school and are seeking initial degrees.

Andragogy is the art and science of helping adults learn. It is based on the use of adult's experience and interest in the teaching learning interaction (Brookfield, 1986; Knowles, 1984). For the purpose of this study, learning needs were defined as factors that affect the learning process.

Theoretical Framework and Associated Literature

The study was based on the theoretical framework of andragogy. Andragogy has been used to help practitioners understand and better serve adults. It is based on the following:

1. Regarding the concept of the learner: The adult learner is self directing. Because adults have come to a point of being responsible for themselves, they wish to be perceived by others, and treated by others as capable of taking responsibility for themselves. While self-directing behavior is typically evident in every aspect of adult lives (at work as an employee, at home as parents and spouses, and in our society as citizens); it is typically less evident when adults return to the classroom. In the classroom adults tend to revert to behaviors of dependency and a need for structure. However, there is still a psychological need to be perceived as a responsible decision maker in the educational process. Adult educators must carefully handle this conflict of dependent behavior and the need for self direction (Knowles, 1984).

2. Regarding the role of the learner's experience: The andragogical model assumes that adults enter into an educational activity with both a greater volume and a different quality of experience from youth. Simply because adults have lived longer and, in general, have had a variety of experiences; they bring to the learning situation various outlooks on life and perspectives that contribute to the learning process (Knowles, 1984).

3. Regarding readiness to learn: The andragogical model assumes that adults become ready to learn when they experience a need to know or do something in order to perform more effectively in some aspect of their lives. "...andragogy assumes that learners are ready to learn those things they need to because of the developmental phases they are approaching in their roles as workers, spouses, parents, organizational leaders, and leisure time users and the like" (Knowles, 1973, p.57). The critical implication of this assumption is the importance of timing the learning experiences to meet the developmental needs of adults. Aslanian (1980) identifies "triggers" that motivate adults to seek out learning opportunities. These triggers can be various changes in life such as birth of a child, loss of a job, divorce, or death of a spouse.

4. Regarding orientation to learning: Because adults are motivated to learn after they experience a need in their life situation, they enter a learning situation with a problem-centered, task-centered or life-centered orientation. Unlike the child's postponed application, there is immediacy to the application of adult learning. The adult wants to apply tomorrow what is learned today (Knowles, 1984; Knowles, 1973).

5. Regarding motivation to learn: While adults will respond to some external motivators such as increased compensation or promotions, the andragogical model establishes that the more "potent" motivators stem from internal needs, such as self-esteem, recognition, better quality of life, greater self-confidence, and self-actualization (Herzberg, 1966; Maslow, 1970). Knowles suggests that adult programmers and educators express outcomes to appeal to these motivators to increase the motivation of adults (Knowles, 1984).

While Knowles' assumptions of andragogy have been challenged, they have certainly raised questions and stimulated discussion about adult learners throughout the field. These assumptions help to identify adult learning needs that need to be addressed to have effective learning in the classroom. While knowledge of andragogy is not a prerequisite to understanding adult learning

needs, andragogy does provide a base in the literature to begin a discussion. While some research has been done to address classroom and environment and teaching styles, very little research has been done in the past to identify the perceptions of adult learning needs by adult educators.

Methodology

Data was collected using focus group interviews with three groups of university faculty that have taught in the evening adult education program of a four year church related university within the last two years. Members of this convenience sample were contacted by letter and invited to participate in the focus group research. These three groups provided for discussion with 18 faculty. All data collection procedures were in accordance with IRB approved protocol. Focus group participation was considered the individual's consent to participate.

Questions were developed to guide the interview and group interaction. In order to determine question clarity and validity, a focus group interview was conducted with a small group of faculty at another institution. With this group's feedback on clarity and question construction, a revised interview guide was developed and used for data collection during the three focus group interviews.

Data Analysis

Focus group interviews were audio taped and transcribed by the researchers for data analysis. Each researcher first coded and categorized transcripts independently. The researchers then worked collaboratively to "make sense" of the data, comparing their independent analysis and synthesizing those into one mutually-agreed upon set of categories. Trustworthiness of analysis is assured through this peer debriefing process (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Results of data analysis were compared to the preidentified research questions.

Findings

One of the areas that the researchers analyzed was the date relevant to adult learning needs as perceived by faculty members. This data was placed into five categorizes: need for support, response to multiple life roles, practicality and applicability, technology, and respect of life experience. Upon examining these five major categories, the researchers believed that they could be condensed into three themes of adult learning needs. These themes are accommodation for multiple life roles, experience, and the need for linking learning to the practical or immediate application.

The accommodation of multiple life roles theme was a major topic of discussion by participants. Faculty reiterated that students multiple life roles and life stressors played havoc on their educational endeavors. The need for additional support often appears to be associated with the stressors, multiple life roles and/or developmental roles of the adult student.

Experience includes that which the individual brings to the learning situation as well as that which he does not possess at the time of the given teaching learning interaction. Since the adult brings experience to the situation, many participants felt it was important to capitalize on it in order to facilitate learning. Additionally, the lack of experience in some areas such as technology proved to be a barrier to learning for many adult students. Respect of students, their experience, and valuing them was identified as a high priority in dealing with adult students. It is felt that students needed to bring their experience into the classroom in order to enhance learning.

Within the context of my comment about respect I think that also includes acknowledgment of that which they bring to the learning environment and the vast resource of

their life experiences and how those become positive and contributory to what can happen in that learning environment. Sometimes we have to draw that out of them because they are self-conscious about so much that they suppress that which is their greatest asset. The fact that they have lived life is in contrast to the traditional student.

The last theme associated with the learning needs of adults as perceived by faculty was that of the need to link learning with the practical or with immediate application. Multiple faculty identified the need that adults have in making the theory real in the form of practical application. When learning could correspond with real life roles, jobs, or practical situations, learning was facilitated. One faculty sums up the belief that in order to teach theory it had to be made practical or relevant.

Adult learners don't have time to deal with the theoretical. So when you feel it is important to take the time to establish some theoretical foundation, you have to be very careful that they understand the practical relevance of the theoretical foundations.

Data relevant to faculty perceptions of teaching adults was grouped into five major categories: preparing the underprepared, varying assignments, varying methodologies, making adjustments, and providing support. Interestingly, most of the data in this section corresponded with the learning needs that were identified in the previous section. In the same way that the data on learning needs was collapsed into themes, the researchers identified two themes that appeared apparent as a result of analyzing the five major categorizes. The two adult teaching themes are: accommodation and provision of support.

Provision of support includes providing for the extra emotional support that student s need when returning to an institution of higher learning,. Faculty members perceived that they should provide support to the adult student by being available at odd times, being available to listen, to assist them in processing their anger, as well as providing clarity and reassurance.

Multiple faculty addressed the issues of varying assignments, varying methodologies, and varying the amount of material covered in order to meet the learning needs of adult students. They accommodated student crises and student role responsibilities. They let children come to class and made allowances for time away from class. Faculty even stopped and filled in missing knowledge in order for the student to be prepared for the task at hand. There overall was a greater allowance for flexibility in the teaching learning interaction.

The one area of great debate centered around maintaining requirements or letting them slide for adult students. The argument for maintaining standards is most eloquently stated by one participant.

I think it sorta offends the academic mentality to say there should be different academic standards for different people.

On the other hand, some faculty felt it was impossible to cover the same amount of material in some classes when teaching adults.

One thing that we try really hard not to do but almost always end up doing is presenting less material....Almost always the adult ed section will be covering less material and will be behind the traditional students. It is just an adjustment that you have to make.

When the researchers looked at both areas of investigation simultaneously, it became apparent that the themes identified in each were integrally related. Accommodation became the buzz word. Learning needs were associated with needed accommodations for multiple life roles, experience, developmental roles, and stressors. Assignments and methodologies were varied in order to accommodate learning needs related to experience, lack of experience or the need

for immediate application. The need for additional support such as clarification on guidelines or being available by phone at odd hours still related to making accommodations for the adult student in order to facilitate the teaching learning process.

Faculty also addressed how the university needs to better accommodate the adult student through more resources, greater accessibility of resources, and being overall more convenient. Faculty believed that the university needed to provide better resources to students; better facilities, exercise equipment, and a place for student interaction such as a lounge. Provision of a comfortable environment was also identified as imperative. Participants spoke often of the need to make things more convenient; deliver books to them, take Visa to pay for tuition, having evening office hours and evening/weekend availability of university resources such as the exercise room and computer labs.

The other interesting note in these interviews was that all but one or two faculty had no idea what the term "andragogy" meant. All faculty participants had taught at least two years for the Adult Education program of this church related school but did not know the term. Of the two who did, one had completed some graduate coursework in adult education and was familiar with the term and concept. The other person was an expert in languages and figured it out from its root derivatives.

Discussion and Conclusions

The characteristic that is often used to separate adults from non-adults is their multiple roles. Being a student is typically not the major role of adults. Many adults juggle the roles of parent, spouse, homemaker, employee, as well as others. Making accommodations for the multiple roles of adults was one way adult educators met this learning need.

Instructors agreed upon the need for sensitivity to the multiple roles of adult students. While academic standards must be met in both traditional and nontraditonal classes, many instructors allowed more flexibility. In the future it would be appropriate to recommend that instructors teaching adults find ways to be empathetic to the multiple life demands and to make accommodations accordingly, keeping in mind that these accommodations must maintain accountability and integrity of the learning situation.

The most highly discussed and agreed upon perceived need dealt with the experience of adult learners. Instructors seemed to understand the need for adults to have their experience valued. Many instructors verbalized their appreciation of the wealth of knowledge adults bring as resources to the classroom providing interesting and meaningful discussions. Faculty in the adult education program should be encouraged to include discussion in their approach to learning. It would be appropriate to recommend that faculty provide an environment that fosters openness and acceptance for sharing thoughts and experiences.

While some adult students are computer literate, many have had only a few, if any, opportunities to work with computers. Students are left to forge new ground on their own or to brave the fast paced, pick it up yourself atmosphere of most computer labs. Instructors within the focus groups seemed to sense student frustration with technology. Many respond by requiring less on-line work and flexibility in computer expectations. Adult students need multiple opportunities to enhance computer skills without the threat of doing poorly in classes. One recommendation for assisting students would be providing a computer training segment in new student orientation sessions. A computer lab for adult students staffed with understanding and knowledgeable adult lab assistants would also prove beneficial.

Adult learners want immediate application. When they learn something in class, they want to

be able to take it and apply it to their work, their home or their life very quickly. Instructors have responded to this need by stressing process and helping students to see the way that the learning fits into their lives. When theory is necessary, one instructor state he always precedes it with explanation. Another recommendation would be to require students to reflect upon how classroom learning can be applied to lifelong learning. When it is appropriate, students should be able to adjust projects and assignments to meet learning objectives in alternate ways that provide greater applicability to individual needs.

Instructors agreed that, in general, adult students need a significant amount of emotional and academic support. They respond to that need inside and outside of the classroom by getting to know students on a personal level, listening to their life stories, and providing for encouragement. Academically, they offer support by providing opportunities for questions, use of rough drafts, choices of essay and take home tests, and reviewing and updating skills that should have been previously mastered.

While unfamiliar with the term andragogy, the discussion among faculty centered around the five main assumptions of andragogy as outlined by Knowles (1984). The term andragogy was not used to describe the way faculty helped adults learn, but in many ways the concepts were understood. It is the researchers beliefs that this reinforces the rationale of the assumptions of andragogy. While that is not the purpose of this study, it is certainly an ancillary finding that is noteworthy and should be considered for future studies.

Based on the data that was examined, it can be concluded that adult education faculty at this church related universityh have a reasonable understanding of adult learning concepts and how those concepts are translated into making accommodations for students within the teaching and learning interaction. It was apparent that these faculty, for the most part, were modifying assignments, teaching methodologies, and the way in which they approached the teaching of adult students. Was this due to their teaching in the adult education program? Would the findings be the same if the sample had included a mix of those teaching in the adult education program and those teaching in traditional classes who have an occasional adult student enrolled in their classes? These questions, as well as others, need to be addressed in future research.

As the future brings more adult students to universities, it will be more and more important that faculty are given the opportunities for learning about adult students through in-service programs, national workshops and simple talk back sessions. The faculty who have taught adult education classes should be the champions for spreading their knowledge.
These faculty members can write articles for newsletters and journals, share in faculty meetings, facilitate teaching and learning sessions, and simply hold one on one conversations with their colleagues. They must be encouraged and rewarded for doing so.

As the university addresses future adult education programs, they need to seek more information from faculty who teach adult students and seriously consider the faculty comments regarding convenience, accessibility, availability of resources, support mechanisms, and other policy issues. As one instructor stated, "*We need to increasingly permeate the University's culture by focusing on and being aware of this special growing population.*"

References will be provided upon request.

Aleza Beverly
6491 N. Daden Drive
Alexandria, IN 46001

Karen Clark
726 Northwood Drive
Richmond, IN

ASSESSING TEACHING STYLE PREFERENCES AND FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE TEACHING STYLE PREFERENCES OF REGISTERED DIETITIANS

Corine Carr

ABSTRACT

Adult patient education is a major responsibility of registered dietitians. A review of the literature indicates that one important characteristic for an effective adult educator is a teaching style which facilitates leaming, known as leamer-centered teaching style. The purpose of this descriptive study was to identify the teaching style preference and factors that influenced the teaching style preference of registered dieitians. Six hundred registered dieitians residing in the Midwest were sent the "Adult Education Questionnaire" and the "Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS)", assessment tools to complete. Analysis of variance tests were performed to assess the relationship between various factors and PALS scores. The findings suggest that the teaching style preference of registered dieitians was teaching-centered. Years of employment had a significant affect on teaching style. The number of formal educational sessions in which the dietitians participated that related to adult education had the most significant effect on teaching style preference. Fon-nal educational programs incorporating prinicples of adult education can positively influence the teaching style of dieitians to become more leamer-centered.

Introduction

Patient enducation is a major responsibility of registered dietitians (Kane, et.al., 1990). In the most recent role delineation study of registered dieitians done by American College Testing at the request of the American Dietetics Association (ADA), the results indicated that 88 percent of entry-level dietitians (less than 3 years in the profession) and 79 percent of beyond-entry-level dietitians teach/counsel clients and their families (Kane, etal., 1990). The dietitians surveyed in the role delineation study indicated that group or individual education activities are a primary function of their professional responsibilities. Patient education responsibilities were reported as performed more frequently than any other responsibilities by entry-level and beyond-entry-level dietitians.

Dietitians are employed primarily in acute-care hospitals (Flynn, Bayk and Neal, 1991; Zallen, 1990; Fossey, 1992) Since the major population of hospitalized people is composed of adults (Johansen, 1989), logically it could be assumed that the majority of the patient educational activities performed by hospital dietitians are directed toward adult leamers. Examples of the patient education activities performed by hospital dietitians include teaching a diabetic class, a cardiac class, or a weight management program: providing in-service training for employees or other health care professionals, and; instructing individuals on planned diets. Hospital dietitians instruct adult audiences through both formal group instruction, as well as by small group and one-on-one instruction.

Dietitians employed in community settings are also involved in teaching adults. Community dietitians conduct public nutrition education programs at various community and public health settings. Administrative dietitians often find themselves in adult education roles as well as management roles. Dietitians in administrative positions provide regular in-service

training to support staff, usually in groups and staff development education for the professional staff.

Dietitians employed or contracted by business and industry provide nutrition education to small or large groups of employees as well as one-on-one instruction. When dietitians in business and industry were surveyed by Kirk in 1989, 60 percent reported that their main responsibility was conducting seminars. Smith and Wellman reported 18 of 19 dietitians surveyed in a health spa presented nutrition classes to the members as a regular part of their responsibilities (1991). Dietitians in hospitals, business and industry, community organizations and administrative positions are involved in teaching adults. As preventative medicine and wellness theories continue to come to the societal forefront, the number of dietitians involved in teaching adults will increase.

The American Dietetics Association promotes teaching-focused skill training in undergraduate dietetic programs. The promotion of teaching skills by ADA is demonstrated by its creation of educational standards mandated by Knowledge and Performance Requirements for Dietitians (1991). This document outlines the knowledge requirements that students must know in order to graduate from an ADA approved undergraduate program. "Effective methods of teaching" is one of the knowledge requirements stated in the Knowledge and Performance Requirements for Dietitians.

In the most recent ADA educational endeavor, the Educational Competencies Steering Committee presented a set of competencies needed by entry-level dietitians to compete effectively in the job market (I 996). Two of the 21 competencies were related to teaching: "conduct a food demonstration" and "conduct a teaching session." The competencies presented in the most recent communication from ADA will be incorporated into the undergraduate dietetics programs along with the knowledge and performance standards.

Dietetic internships, after baccalaureate graduation, also provide educational opportunities for students. When Schiller, et. al. (1990) surveyed dietetic internship directors about intems' expected knowledge and skill, 77 percent of the directors expected intems to know theories of learning and characteristics of adult learners. Therefore, it is assumed that students who graduate from ADA approved dietetic undergraduate programs will have the knowledge and skill to teach adults before they enter the pre-professional internship experience.

Statement of the Problem

Undergraduate Knowledge and Performance Statements have been established by The American Dietetics Association(ADA) to guide dietetics programs in educating future dietitians. Based on the fact that entry level dietitians working in hospitals educate primarily adults, the assumption could be made that dietitians who are patient educators possess the knowledge, skills, and attitudes needed to anticipate, recognize, and meet adult needs and to direct learning activities to adequately address those needs. On the basis of this assumption, the principles of adult education as the foundation for learning should be evident in the teaching styles of dietitians.

"Teaching style" is defined by Darkenwald and Merriam as "various identifiable sets of classroom behaviors by the teacher which are consistent even though the content that is being taught may change" (1988). The teaching style of an adult educator can be determined by observation of classroom behaviors or by using proven instruments designed to measure teaching style. Knowing one's teaching strengths and teaching style preference and how to adapt them to maximize student learning should be the goal of every adult educator.

Two predominant teaching styles have been identified in the adult education literature: Teacher-centered teaching style and leamer-centered teaching style (Conti, 1985). Teacher-

centered teaching style reflects an educator who's philosophical base is pedagogical whereas a learner-centered teaching style reflects an educator who's philosophical base is adragogical, based on adult education principles. The literature demonstrates the fact that when adult education principles are used when teaching adults, the learning outcomes are more positive (Conti, 1985).

Malcolm Knowles, one of the founding fathers of the adult education principles stated in 1970 "the behavior of the teacher probably influences the character of the learning climate more than any other single factor". An educator's teaching style is by definition "the behavior of the teacher" which influences the character of the learning climate or the environment created in the adult education classroom.

The learning climate that the registered dietitian creates in a patient education setting is therefore reflective of her teaching style. For the outcome of the patient education program to be more positive, the learning climate needs to be one that is learner centered. By creating a positive learning experience, the dietitian would give patients the opportunity to incorporate the learned skill or knowledge in their daily living.

Unfortunately a problem persists. Even after participation in an education session or program, patients many times do not have sufficient knowledge or skill to perform optimal self-care. For example, research findings document that patients recall only about 50 percent of their health care professionals' recommendations immediately after their interaction (Pichert, Kulp and Phillips, 1982; Ley, 1983; Falvo and Tippy, 1988). If patients are not able to recall half of the recommendations made by their health care professional, the time spent instructing patients is not cost effective. If health is an important issue to patients why can't they recall the recommendations made to improve their health. One potential cause for these difficulties may be related to the health care professionals' teaching skills. Often health care professionals are not taught skills for teaching adult patients and such teaching has not been widely available to health care professionals including dietitians (Pigg, 1982). If health care professionals are presenting information to patients using ineffective methods, the patients may not recall the recommendations and therefore cannot follow the recommendations. Which in the end affects the cost-effectiveness of the health care professional and in some cases may determine the continuation of that health care professional's services.

Registered dietitians must become the best adult educators possible. In the current health care arena, the health care professional who is not considered cost effective because anticipated outcomes are not achieved will not be included in the health care team. Assessing dietitians' teaching styles and the factors that influenced teaching styles must be determined. Only then could dietitians be taught to adapt their teaching style to maximize student learning and enhance the learning climate so necessary for adult education.

Purpose of the Study

One of the purposes of this study was to assess the teaching style preference of dietitians. Since teaching style of the teacher had been identified as an important factor in adult learning, it was imperative for the profession of dietetics to assess the teaching style of dietitians engaged in teaching adults. To date, the research literature has not addressed teaching style preference of dietitians.

The second purpose of the study was to assess the effect of some of the factors that may have influenced the teaching style preference of dietitians. Factors which may have affected teaching style may have been the number of years of employment and the number of formal educational sessions or programs which contain sections on principles of adult education. The

factors which influenced teaching style of dietitians have not been addressed in the literature.

Therefore, this study evaluated the relationship between the number of years of employment and the number of formal education sessions containing adult education principles and teaching style. By analyzing the Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS) scores, this study also identified whether dietitians' teaching style preference is teacher-centered or learner-centered.

The hypothesis was that registered dietitians who are teaching adults have not received adequate fon-nal preparation to create a leamer-centered environment and therefore the overall PALS scores would be reflective of a teacher-centered teaching style. It was also hypothesized that the more years of employment would produce registered dietitians who created more leamer-centered environments in the adult education settings in which they teach as indicated by the PALS scores.Since entry-level dietitians are responsible for a large portion of the adult nutrition education, they must be prepared when they begin their professional career.

Research Questions

The study will answer the following research questions: 1. What is the teaching style preference of registered dietitians?; 2. To what extent do the number of years employed as a dietitian influence teaching style preference of registered dietitians?; 3. To what extent do the number of formal educational sessions or programs which contain sections pertaining to principles of adult education influence teaching style preference of registered dietitians?

The independent variables were: 1. years of experience as a registered dietitian; 2. years of experience in current position as an educator of adults; 3. number of formal educational sessions or programs which contain sections of adult education principles (a. undergraduate courses b.graduate courses c. continuing professional education units); 4. route to registration as a dietitian. The dependent variable was scores on PALS.

Significance of the Study

If dietitians are to continue to fill the role of adult educators of adults, both in the hospital and outside the hospital, they must be prepared to teach adults. Teaching effectively is crucial. If teaching style is one factor in teaching adults effectively, dietitians will benefit from knowing what their teaching style preference is and what factors influence their teaching style.

With the costs of health care continuing to rise, many employers are seeking ways to prevent disease and create a healthier, more productive workforce. Dietitians who work in any business, including hospitals, are faced with the reality of proving their worth. The effectiveness of dietitians' teaching will be measured in the business setting in relation to cost-benefit. Employers will compare the costs of providing nutrition education programs to the benefit of improved nutritional status of employees demonstrated in higher productivity, fewer health problems and reduced health care costs. Dietitians must commit to becoming the most effective adult educators possible to maintain their positions.

In the September, 1 993 issue of the Journal of the American Dietetics Association, Ronni Chemof stated: "Education is among the most important activities engaged in by dietetics professionals. We invest a great deal in educating students to become competent pracfitioners and providing incentives to maintain and increase their competencies, but we have little information about the actual effectiveness of educational efforts. The profession's future relies on the ability of individual practitioners and their commitment to self-development; education is a lifelong responsibility. We must also consider the critical issues affecting dietetics education: this involves investigating education methodology with a focus on effectiveness."

This study addressed the issue of professional training of dietitians and correlated the training to the dietitians' effectiveness in the area of patient education.

Methodology

An introductory letter requesting participation in the study was distributed to a random sample of 600 registered dietitians employed in clinical, community, public health, or administrative roles dietitians currently living in the Midwest (IN, IL, MI, WI, OH).using mailing labels provided by ADA with a descriptive questionnaire and the PALS instrument. Each participant had a code number assigned to them to maintain confidentiality. Part I was a questionnaire that was used to obtain primarily demographic or descriptive data of the population. Many of the questions on the questionnaire were edited by specialists at ADA who are interested in the results of the study for undergraduate curriculum evaluation and professional education planning. Part H of the survey was the Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS), an instrument designed to measure teaching style preference.

The Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS) is a 44-item instrument using a sunimative rating scale from a modified Likert scale developed by Conti, 1978. It is based on the principles that are advanced in the adult education literature. High scores on the PALS have been designated to reflect a leamer-centered approach to the teaching-leaming transaction. Low scores on the PALS denote a preference for the teacher-centered approach in which the authority resides with the instructor. Self-reported scores on PALS have been positively correlated with the actual classroom behaviors of the teachers according to the Flanders Interaction Analysis Categories (Conti, 1983). Reliability has been established through test-retest. The Pearson correlation coefficient is .92. Construct validity has been established through field-testing and statistical analysis. PALS has been tested with hospital educators as well as training directors, cooperative extension agents and ABE teachers. The overall PALS score can be broken down into seven factors that identify the specific elements that make up a teacher's style.

The overall PALS scores and the seven factor scores were computer generated. Frequency distributions and population percentages were calculated for demographic and descriptive data. The mean, median and standard deviation of PALS scores and the seven factor scores were calculated. ANOVA and MANOVA tests were performed to assess the relationship between the dietitians' number of years of employment and the total PALS score as well as the seven factor scores of the PALS instrument. The relationship between the number of years of formal education sessions or programs that included content pertaining to adult education and the PALS total score and seven factoral scores were analyzed.

Findings

From this descriptive study of 252 registered dieitians (42% return), it can be ascertained that the teaching style preference of registered dietitians who teach adults is supportive of the teacher-centered approach as measured by the Principles of Adult Learning Scale.

The information from the 10-item demographic questionnaire provided information about years of experience and education. Through t-test analysis (p=.037), the mean PALS scores from this study demonstrated that the more years of experience the registered dietitian had after 16 years negatively influenced the support of the leaner-centered teaching style.

Formal education courses relating to adult education had a strong effect on increasing the likelihood that the registered dietitian would present a more leamer-centered teaching style preference. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) illustrated the significant difference (p=.038) between

the groups receiving undergraduate courses in adult education and the mean PALS scores. Similar results were seen when the t-test revealed a significant difference (p=.O 1 5) between those dieitians who had graduate courses in adult education and those who did not. Continuing education had the most profound effect on increasing the possibility that the registered dietitians would promote the leamer-centered teaching style. The ANOVA of the 5 groups of dietitians receiving continuing education units found a significant difference (p=.021) between the groups. The Tukey-HSD analysis disclosed the significant difference was between the group obtaining more than 10 units and the group receiving 0 units of continuing education relating to adult education.

Application of Findings to Practice

Since this initial research in the area of deten-niining teaching style preference and factors that influence teaching style preference has been completed, dietitians can use this research as a springboard to investigate their own teaching style and its effectiveness in the learning climate they present to adult learners. By evaluating one's own teaching style and investigating principles of adult learning, dietitians can be better prepared to provide a learning climate to the patients they teach which may facilitate a more positive outcome from the learning experience. Registered dietitians need to begin to see themselves as adult educators. This research is one beginning step to that awareness.

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Corine Carr, Family and Consumer Sciences, Ball State University. CMCARR777@aol.com

IMPLEMENTING LEARNING CONTRACTS: A METACOGNITION APPROACH

Linda H. Chiang

ABSTRACT

This six-year study sought to examine how using learning contracts enhanced students' learning. The implementation process also encouraged students to apply metacognitive strategies. This study proved that students become conscientious learners. Reported data also indicated students have applied more than one metacognitive strategies.

Objectives

This six-year study examined how using learning contracts enhanced students' learning. The learning contract criteria included planning, controlling, monitoring learning processes, and using study skills as part of a learning contract.

This study sought to better understand how strategies of metacongition increased students taking responsibilities for their learning and academic achievement. The second purpose of this study was to ascertain whether the process of using learning contracts encouraged students to become conscientious learners.

Perspectives

The learning contract is a means of making learning objectives clear to both the learner and the instructor. By participating in the process of implementing a learning contract, the learner develops a sense of ownership in the learning plan.

Allen Tough in "The Adult learning projects" (1979) found that when adults go about learning something naturally they are highly self-directing. Knowles further claimed that what adults learn on their own initiative they learn more deeply and permanently than what they learn by being taught (1986). Learning contracts provide a vehicle for making the planning of learning experiences a mutual undertaking between a learner and his or her mentor, teacher, and peers.

In this study the instructor developed an Individual Learning Plan (ILP) which served as a learning contract between the instructor and each individual student who was enrolled in a "Developmental Reading in the Content Areas" course as a requirement for prospective secondary teachers. The purpose of the course is to help prospective secondary teachers to understand reading problems secondary students have with subject oriented materials (Indiana Teacher Education and Certification Handbook, 1976). In recent years the need to provide a well conceived secondary school reading program has grown and the importance of comprehensive curricula has been recognized (Roe, Stoodt, and Burns, 1998). However, many students who enroll in the course experience frustration and motivational problems. This frustration especially is evident among students who major in art, music, and physical education. In order to demonstrate that learning theories taught in this course can be applied in all subjects, the instructor implemented contract learning to direct students attention and motivation.

Contract learning is an alternative way of structuring a learning experience. The contract serves as a measurement of the objectives of particular units or projects in a course. This concept originated from the practice of independent study and later was enriched with studied of self-directed learning (Knowles, 1986). Contract learning is a flexible concept. It can be applied in different situations depending on the objectives to be accomplished. New College at the

University of South Florida has developed a typology of seven categories of contracts to provide learners and teachers with many options. The seven categories are as follows:

1. Survey contract: An examination of the content of various fields of knowledge;
2. Methodological contract: An exploration of the techniques and modes of thought characteristic of one or more disciplines;
3. Thematic contract: An exploration of different subject matter that possesses thematic focus;
4. Research contract: An in-depth study of a problem that requires extensive work in either the laboratory or the field;
5. Skill contract; The acquisition of skills in fields such as the studio or performing arts or a foreign language;
6. Applied contract: An attempted integration of classroom and field experience or of theory and practice; and
7. Off-campus study contract: Study at another college or university, research at specialized institutes, an internship, or a field experience project.

In this study the researcher implemented the applied contract. Through the contract the researcher attempted to integrated practice and theory in learning. Further, this ILP was used to assist students in utilizing metacognitive strategies to accomplish a project as a part of the Developmental Reading course.

The term metacognition has been used to describe our knowledge about how we perceive, remember, think, and act. Therefore, metacognition refers to the awareness of and control over one's cognitive process. Researchers have found that students need instructions and guidance to practice metacognitive skills (Maryland State Department of Education, 1990). According to Ganer(1990) metacognitive abilities begin to develop around age five to seven years of age and improve throughout school. Most children go through a transitional period when they can apply a particular strategy if reminded, but they are not likely to do this on their own. Adults, therefore, need to be reminded and encouraged to use metacognitive skills. Simpson's (1984) survey found that college students use the same single strategy for most learning tasks; they do not engage in the cognitive monitoring process in their learning. Simpson's study indicated that teaching college students to apply more cognitive skills is essential for their learning. The application of metacognitive strategies in colleges has been used in diverse courses, such as Biology (McCrindle and Christensen, 1995), World History (Fox, 1994), and Computer Science (Volet, 1991). These successful cases reported using metacognitive strategies to increase students awareness and control of the learning process.

In this study the researcher applied ILP to monitor students using metacognitive strategies in a "Developmental Reading" course. The process included: setting goals of ILP, developing ILP, monitoring learning processes, writing reflective journals, conducting one-on-one conferences, and making summative evaluations.

Methodology

This instructor began this study in 1991. During the following six years, 222 students who were enrolled in the one semester course of "Developmental Reading in the Content Areas" participated in this study. At the beginning of a semester, the instructor explained the purpose of the Individual Learning Plan (ILP) to the students, connected the learners to resources (books,

library, CD ROM, etc.), and set the time frame for planning. Once students filled out their plans, the instructor reviewed their ILP for the following information:

1. Are the learning objectives clear and realistic?
2. Are the learning strategies and resources reasonable and appropriate?
3. Are the self monitoring process included?
4. Are the designed projects reasonable and specific?
5. Are the evaluation processes reasonable and appropriate?
6. Is an expected grade listed?

During the process the learners were given freedom to take the initiative in choosing their own resources for implementing the ILP and how they would monitor themselves to achieve their learning goals. The learners indicated what grade they expected to receive, but the instructor retained the responsibility for determining the grade. Both the instructor and each student signed the contract and received a copy.

At the end of the semester, a summative evaluation was implemented and a one-on-one conference followed to provide feedback. Students were asked how well they used the skills and their opinions on the effectiveness of the ILP. Data were analyzed by tallying survey forms and transcripts from interviews and reflective journals. Data were reported in percentages and excerpts from conference interviews and journals.

Summary of the Findings

During the interactions with the students, the instructor developed extensive two-way communication with the students. Students reported there was a positive impact on their own learning using learning contracts. The reported data found using an ILP as a contract helped students to become aware of their own learning and knowing what they had learned. Most of the students reported using an Individual Learning Plan as a learning contract was a first time experience (N=220, 99.1%). Students reported the most used strategies included: note-taking (N=195, 87.8%), underlining (N=191, 86%), and summarizing (N=117, 52.7%). The students also reported that they utilized comprehension skills such as sorting main ideas (N=208, 93.7%). Seventy seven percent of the students (N=170) reported that they always understood most of what they read in their textbooks, and 93.7% (N=208) reported that most people understood what they wrote. The participants also reported they became more conscientious of their learning (N=170, 76.6%) as a side benefit of using individual leaning plans. As for the frequencies they monitored their reading and thinking, the reported data varied from semester to semester ranging from every day to never monitored their reading and thinking. As a whole group 42.7% (N=95) students reported they monitored their reading and thinking every day, 27.5% (N=61) reported they monitored their reading and thinking every week, the same percentage of students said they monitored themselves every now and then, 1.3% (N=3) reported they seldom did so, and 1% (N=2) students said they never monitored their reading and thinking process.

The researcher's one-on-one student conferences revealed that most students gained more confidence in planning and monitoring their own learning. Their journals indicated that they comprehended and retained more information. They felt that they had some control of their learning accomplishments. A student stated " I believe when I get my own class, I will use the individual learning contract. It is a good idea and I wish I could have been exposed to it earlier in my academic career." Other students expressed that the reminders from the instructor helped the learning process. Journal writing illustrated many positive comments. In one journal, a student stated, "I began to evaluate my study skills and reading rate and comprehension.-- I have learned

what to focus on in content.", in another journal entry, a student said "I retain more information", "I have noticed more and more the importance of reading in music.", and, "I think the metacognitive strategies are helping me to remember what I read."

Importance of the Study

Teaching effectiveness heavily relies upon effective communication. This study found using learning contracts, appraisals, reflective journals, and one-on-one conferences helped the instructor develop a rapport with her students. This rapport helped the students both cognitively and affectively. This study also found metacognitive skills can match learning theories and teaching strategies. Using learning contracts allow students to assume learning responsibilities. Jarvis (1992) argued that learning is of the essence within the conscious experience. This process allows learners to transform experience into knowledge, skills, attitudes, values, and beliefs. From this study most students reported they felt they held themselves accountable for their learning. Learning contracts proved to help students to monitor and judge what was to be learned and applied in the learning process. As a result of this study, learning contracts illustrated that students can be self-directed in their own learning. Constant reminding, praise, and journal writing are strategies which can be utilized to assure the effectiveness of contract learning among college students. The extension of using Individual Learning Contracts in different courses and at different levels should be encouraged in college.

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Linda H. Chiang, School of Education, Anderson University, Anderson IN 46012, lhchiang@anderson.edu

CONSTRUCTIVIST LEARNING THEORY TO WEB-BASED COURSE DESIGN: AN INSTRUCTIONAL DESIGN APPROACH

Simone Conceição-Runlee
Barbara J. Daley

ABSTRACT

With the advent of web-based courses and distance education technology, it is necessary to carefully consider how the use of this technology fosters the learning intended in adult education programs. In this paper, we have outlined constructivist learning theory as an approach to fostering web-based course development. A constructivist approach allows both learners and facilitators to take advantage of the World Wide Web, because the theory focuses on making connections and making meaning in the learning process. Web-based courses that are designed with a constructivist approach encourage the learners to navigate, create, and construct their unique knowledge base.

Constructivist Learning Theory to Web-Based Course Design: An Instructional Design Approach

Is constructivist learning theory simply a theory of learning or a strategy for teaching as well? Can constructivist learning theory guide the development of web-based instructional design? What web-based design considerations and teaching strategies are relevant to create a good on-line learning environment that supports and nourishes active construction of knowledge?

The purpose of this paper is to analyze the process and results of a project designed to incorporate technological learning strategies to facilitate knowledge construction. In this project, faculty in adult education collaborated with an expert in web course design to develop an on-line learning environment that aided constructivist learning. The instructional design process and teaching strategies will be synthesized to develop an understanding of constructivist learning theory. In this paper, the term constructivist means a type of learning framed by constructivist learning theory. Three aspects of the project will be addressed in this paper: (1) application of constructivist learning theory in the on-line environment, (2) on-line instructional design process, and (3) constructivist teaching strategies.

Application of Constructivist Learning Theory in the On-line Environment

Constructivist learning theory holds that "learners actively construct and reconstruct knowledge out of their experiences in the world" (Kafai and Resnik, 1996, p. 3). Knowledge construction takes place when learners actively construct knowledge through intellectual engagement and investment in personally meaningful tasks. Constructivists believe that individuals learn through their experience and that meaning is rooted in that experience. The key to learning, in a constructivist framework, is for the learner to find multiple ways to link new information to previous experience.

Lambert et al. (1995) refer to constructivism as the epistemological processes of knowing and coming to know (p. 17). They then identify principles of constructivist learning theory that are discussed here.

PRINCIPLES OF CONSTRUCTIVIST LEARNING THEORY

Knowledge and beliefs are formed within the learner (Lambert, et al, 1995, p. 17). Within constructivist learning theory learners create their own knowledge by how they put their worlds

together. In other words, constructivists focus on the connections that the learner is making between ideas. Novak (1998) believes that learning occurs through a process of assimilating concepts into the cognitive structures by either subsuming concepts under each other, by progressively differentiating concepts from each other or by reconciling the similarities between concepts. The crucial element is that the learner actively creates a knowledge base through the linkages and the experiences.

Learners personally imbue experiences with meaning (Lambert, et al., 1995, p. 17). Creating meaning in a constructivist view consists of analyzing and synthesizing experiences so that new understandings are developed. This is more than simply understanding our experiences as learners, it is about probing deeply the meaning of these experiences in our lives and how these experiences shape our understanding.

Learning activities should cause learners to gain access to their experiences, knowledge and beliefs (Lambert, et al., 1995, p. 17-18). Constructivists believe that learning activities should foster an integration of thinking, feeling and acting (Novak, 1998). Learning activities that foster this constructive integration of experience, knowledge, belief, thoughts, feelings and actions can assist the learner in the process of developing meaning.

Learning is a social activity that is enhanced by shared inquiry (Lambert, et al., 1995, p. 18). One of the goals of constructivist learning is to foster the development of shared meaning (Novak, 1998) between facilitator and learner or between learners in a group. Arriving at shared meaning is a complex activity that is primarily social and relies on the process of shared inquiry. Learner and facilitator together probe the connections between new information and previous experience with the idea of developing a mutual understanding.

Reflection and metacognitition are essential aspects of constructing knowledge and meaning (Lambert, et al., 1995, p. 18). For learners to construct meaning, they need to understand and analyze their own learning processes. Thus, constructivists promote the process of learning how to learn (Novak & Gowin, 1984) by incorporating reflective and metacognitive strategies into the learning design.

Learners play a critical role in assessing their own learning (Lambert, et al., 1995, p. 18). Evaluation and assessment in a constructivist framework focus on the learner understanding the processes and the meanings that they have created from their own learning. Learners are actively involved in the assessment process and articulate what they have learned and how they have made the connections to their previous experiences.

The outcomes of the learning process are varied and often unpredictable (Lambert, et al., 1995, p. 18). Finally, constructivists acknowledge that learning occurring in this framework is often idiosyncratic and unexpected. Learners make meaning from new information in light of their personal experiences and thus, unexpected outcomes are common and unique.

In order to form new relationships with knowledge and new representations of knowledge, three elements are taken into consideration when trying to provide a good learning environment for learners: choice, diversity, and congeniality. The learner is the best person to decide what is to be personally meaningful. If learners are empowered to choose what to construct or create, they are more likely to be personally engaged and invested in the activity. Constructivists recognize that learners have different skill levels and learning styles. A rich learning environment encourages multiple learning styles and multiple representations of knowledge (Kafai & Resnik, 1996). Having a congenial learning environment free from constraints of time and space is central for creating and sharing knowledge. Creativity and interactivity among learners are best assimilated in a friendly and welcoming environment.

Constructivist learning theory can be applied in the on-line environment by providing opportunities for learners to engage in creative and collaborative activities that encourage knowledge construction. Thus, it can also be a strategy for teaching. In order to create the on-line environment focused on adult learners' construction of knowledge, instructional design and teaching strategies are considered.

On-line Instructional Design Process

The use of an instructional design process links constructivist learning theory to the practice of adult education. Merrill (as cited in Duffy & Jonassen, 1992) suggests that instructional design and delivery systems are composed of two primary subsystems: a knowledge base and a family of instructional transaction shells. "The knowledge base is a representation of all of the knowledge and skills to be taught. Transaction shells enable the learners to interact with this knowledge in ways that best enable them to build appropriate mental models" (p. 109). The World Wide Web has turned into one of the most accessible learning devices for creating an environment for constructing knowledge. It provides patterns of learner interactions that enable the learner to create new relationships with knowledge and new representations of knowledge. These instructional transaction shells provide learners with the means necessary to understand different content topics and solve problems.

Designing web-based environments for learning and communicating is more than just placing information on the web, it requires new skills to produce web sites and to communicate with learners. These skills include audience consideration, web design process, self-directed learning techniques, two-way feedback mechanisms, navigational science for directional and psychological movement, expertise in content and content architecture, links and relationships management, mind map development, and learning theory and human development (Morris and Hinrichs, 1996). It is important to consider the learner's needs, differences between novice and expert users, diverse platforms and browsers, graphics capability, and Internet providers.

Creating a web page for instruction involves the process of analysis, design, development, testing, implementation, and updating. It is during the analysis process that the identification of users and tasks the web site will perform are determined. During the design process, major high-level topics and sets of information are divided into subgroups and a theme is selected. An important feature of the design process is the brainstorming of the relationship between the sets of information and subgroups and how they support the theme. Identification of the document structure constitutes a component of the development stage. Throughout the testing phase, all linkages should be tested by novices and experts. The last phase of the design process is the implementation and updating of the web site, which includes the insertion of feedback tools on the site, the transfer of files into the World Wide Web, and the frequent verification for broken links (Morris & Hinrichs, 1996).

Certain aspects related to course content should be considered. For example, syllabi, handouts, and class assignments provide guidelines for students to follow and give learners a sense of place and structure on the web. The text structure must follow the use of command verbs to cue learners what to do next; short lines and short paragraphs create exciting visual stimulation for learners. Recommendations related to text formatting included the need to use brief text, active voice, bullets to format a list, whitespace, left-justify, etc. The language style should be conversational as if the web site would be speaking to the learner. Bullets, headlines and pull quotes should be combined with paragraphs or explanatory text after the bullet heading. When inserting links, the identification of patterns in the links and a brief description of the link

should help learners navigate through the course more efficiently. The use of templates is an option that can help organize the information structure. Having a common navigational control bar for all pages can assist the user to easily reach locations on the web site (Morris & Hinrichs, 1996). In order to integrate human mind maps with web mind maps to create an environment for helping learners' construct knowledge, the web site must have a set of common features, it must identify with the learner, and provide interactive tools. These features follow the visual representation of conceptual meanings.

The role of the instructional designer is to move from structuring teaching strategies to designing environments in which constructivist learning can take place. Duffy & Bednar (as cited in Duffy & Jonassen, 1992) suggest that these environments present "rich contexts, authentic tasks, collaboration for the development and evaluation of multiple perspectives, an abundance of tools to enhance communication and access to real-world examples and problems, reflective thinking, modeling or problem solving by experts in the content domain, and apprenticeship mentoring relationships to guide learning" (p. 132).

Constructivist Teaching Strategies

This paper is based on a project developed to integrate new learning strategies and innovative educational technologies into an adult and continuing education weekend program with the purpose of decreasing travel time for learners and increasing communication between students and faculty. As a result of this experience, the use of on-line learning strategies has fostered student and faculty communication, individualized the learning to the student's needs, and supported and nourished learners' construction of knowledge.

When using constructivist strategies for learning, instruction. . . "should not focus on transmitting plans to the learner, but rather in developing skills of the learner to construct (and reconstruct) plans in response to situational demands and opportunities" (Duffy and Jonanssen, 1992, p. 4). To facilitate the constructivist learning approach in an on-line environment two examples will be highlighted: concept maps and on-line discussions with group reflection (also known as mailing list or listserv).

Concept Maps. "A concept map is a schematic device for representing a set of concept meanings embedded in a framework of propositions" (Novak and Gowin, 1984, p. 15). Concept maps (Novak, 1998) are a visual representation of conceptual meanings used to develop shared meaning between learner and facilitator or between learners in a group. Concept maps are a metacognitive tool that demonstrates explicit, overt representation of concepts and propositions a person holds, they allow teachers and learners to exchange views on why a particular propositional linkage is good or valid, or to recognize missing linkages between concepts that suggest a need for new learning" (Novak and Gowin, 1984, p. 19).

In the on-line learning project described in this paper, concept maps were used in two different ways. First, students were asked to read two different books discussing the topic of the course. A concept map was developed that represented the similarities and differences between the two books. Students then used the maps as a format for on-line discussion of their understanding of the readings.

Second, students were asked to view popular films that dealt with the course topic. After viewing the film, the student created a concept map that depicted what was seen in the film and how that related to the theories under study. The maps were then used as a basis for the on-line case discussions of the films and their connections to the course topics. Concept maps were created electronically with a software program called Inspiration. Once the maps were created

the students could share, discuss, alter or revise their maps as their learning and understanding of the concepts under study grew and changed.

On-line Discussion with Group Reflection. In this project, on-line discussion groups were established and were included as part of the course requirements. Learners were expected to participate and the instructor initially established discussion questions related to the concepts under study. The discussion questions served the purpose of initiating the on-line activities, but it soon became apparent that the learners would take the discussion in the direction that enhanced their learning the most. On-line discussions were used to discuss course concepts, case studies, and course readings. It was interesting that the on-line discussion seemed to promote a more in-depth level of analysis and synthesis. The learners discussion points and comments were a thoughtful analysis and critique, of not only their course work, but their life experiences as well. Learners reported that they used a constructivist process in preparing for and participating in the on-line discussion. The learner would read the discussion questions, review some of the material in the text, read and think about the contributions of other students and then frame their response. Responses were thoughtfully created and showed many connections to other course work and learning materials.

Summary

With the advent of web-based courses and distance education technology, it is necessary to carefully consider how the use of this technology fosters the learning intended in adult education programs. In this paper, we have outlined constructivist learning theory as an approach to fostering web-based course development. A constructivist approach allows both learners and facilitators to take advantage of the World Wide Web, because the theory focuses on making connections and making meaning in the learning process. Web-based courses that are designed with a constructivist approach encourage the learners to navigate, create, and construct their unique knowledge base.

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Simone Conceição-Runlee, M.S. ***simpass@uwm.edu*** **• http://www.uwm.edu/~simpass**

Barbara J. Daley, Ph.D. ***bdaley@uwm.edu*** **• http://www.uwm.edu/~bdaley**
University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee
School of Education
Adult & Continuing Education Program
P.O. Box 413, Milwaukee, WI 53201

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LITERACY, LIFE SKILLS, TRAINING AND TRANSITION IN A CORRECTIONAL FACULITY: AN EVALUATION

Mary Katherine Cooper

ABSTRACT

The LLTT program was designed to integrate literacy development and life skills with on the job training and culminate with direct assistance to locate a job and successfully integrate into the community after being released from prison. The goal of this program was to reduce recidivism rates for felons with low levels of literacy. Conflicting findings in studies of correctional education programs suggest that there may be other factors involved in determining recidivism rates for offenders beyond basic literacy. In an effort to obtain a better picture of the effects of the program, this evaluation was designed in three, one year phases, considered multiple factors, and used both positivistic and interpretive methods for evaluation. Each year was evaluated using a variety of tools and this paper addresses the strengths and weaknesses of the program and the evaluation process with an emphasis on the third and final year.

Background and Description

In 1994 the Faribault Correctional Facility in Minnesota was awarded a three year grant to pursue the Literacy, Life Skills, Training and Transition Program (LLTT). The LLTT was designed to provide life skills, literacy, critical thinking, job seeking and keeping skills, and other job training to all incoming inmates below eighth grade reading and math levels. The program was designed to integrate literacy development and life skills with on the job training and culminate with direct assistance to locate a job and successfully integrate into the community after being released from prison. The program was funded by the federal government and evaluated by the University of Minnesota, Corrections Education Research Center. The primary goal of this program was to reduce recidivism rates for felons with low levels of literacy.

Attitudes toward education in corrections revolve around perceptions of the costs of recidivism by government officials and taxpayers (Imel, 1990). There is an underlying belief in education in corrections that rehabilitation and integration of offenders back into society is important because it represents a savings in terms of human and financial resources. Once the offender is rehabilitated taxpayers do not continue to pay the cost of incarceration or costs associated with further crimes. In fact the goal of rehabilitation is for the offender to become a productive member of society contributing tax dollars and talents to the society as a whole (Wenda, 1996). However, evaluation of the success of educational programs has had mixed results. Many adult inmates have not experienced success in school and fail to complete high school requirements. Likewise, many also have unsuccessful work histories. Studies have found that participants in correctional education programs have lower recidivism rates as well as higher employment rates after release (Langenbach, North, Aagard, & Chown, 1990; O'Neil, 1990; Schumacker, 1990). In examining adult basic education programming, specifically those designed to teach those with skills below the eighth grade level in correctional facilities, it has been found that those completing these programs had the lowest recidivism rates upon release (Porporino & Robinson, 1992).

However, there are also conflicting findings. In a study of inmates receiving vocational-technical education the control group had a lower recidivism rate than the group receiving training (Davis & Chown, 1986). Conflicting findings suggest that there may be other factors involved in

determining recidivism rates for offenders. Consequently this research study was designed in three, one year phases, to set up a program that considered multiple factors, and used both positivistic and interpretive methods for evaluation.

In an analysis of programs that appeared to work, Ryan (1991) developed ten characteristics of effective literacy programs for reintegration into the community. These characteristics include, but are not limited to, content that addresses the post-release needs of the offender; address real-life concerns; integrate basic skills development with life skills development; provide instruction that provides positive reinforcement and social modeling; provide opportunities for the offender to practice skills in the context of real life situations (Ryan, 1991).

Year One

The first year evaluation of the Literacy, Life Skills, Training and Transition program focused on the program model. The team used an existing evaluation tool reported by Anabel Newman (Newman, Lewis, & Beaverstock, 1993). This tool provided criteria that provides a prolife of a model literacy program based on an extensive study of what works for corrections education. In addition to the reduction of recidivism, according to Newman, et al (1993) a model program educates broadly, is governed for the sake of the learners, makes prison life more livable, is cost-effective, improves the quality of life, provides a new reader's library, makes appropriate use of educational technology, and is the right thing to do. The design of the program incorporated literacy instruction, social, cognitive and job seeking skills for one-half day, and vocational training for the second half of the day. The evaluation of the first year of the program and it's design was favorable finding that the program adhered to the criteria which Newman reported, especially in the area of educating broadly. Educational Significance Audits demonstrated that although there were expected numbers entering the program, fewer participants finished the program. This loss of participants was mostly due to inter-institutional transfer. Compliance audits noted that although the program did not meet all criteria set forth in the initial grant application, individual criteria were either adapted or omitted based on sound educational or economic practice.

Year Two

Since a major goal of the LLTT program was to improve inmates' self-esteem, the second year evaluation focused on the changes in self-esteem noted in the participants immediately following the completion of the Life Skills, Literacy, Training and Transition Program, in addition to educational significance and tracking compliance with stated goals. The primary tool used to measure multiple factors was the Adult Self-Perception Profile (Messer & Harter, 1986). Within two weeks of entering the program participants were administered this profile. The profile was again administered immediately following completion. There was a notable increase in feelings of self-worth. Detailed statistical data for this phase of the evaluation is reported in depth in Wenda (1996).

Third and Final Year

The third year evaluation focuses on the participant after release from the correctional facility. As stated in the original proposal, this years' focus is on the transition back into the community with pre- and post-release activities. After learning literacy skills, acquiring life skills, and mastering work skills, the inmate is to be assisted to plan and prepare for transition back to his family and community and into a job.

The Evaluation Plan

The third year evaluation was more subjective in nature. In order to fully evaluate the transition back home and into the community, LLTT participants were contacted to assess the usefulness of the program after release. In order to obtain a complete picture of the LLTT program, especially with regard to the educational and economic restraints, three staff were also interviewed.

Some questions to be considered included: How beneficial was this program for the participants; What did they learn in the program; What were the positive aspects of the program; What were the negative aspects of the program; How could the program be improved; What is your definition of a successful transition?

Approach and Development of the Participant Interview Questions

The purpose of this part of the evaluation was to look at the participants in the LLTT program after being released from the correctional facility. The topics covered were demographics, transportation, job data, family data, and specific data about how the participants felt about the relationship between the LLTT program and his current situation during the first year post-incarceration. In-depth interviews were done with three of the participants who graduated from the program. The interviewees were asked to describe their experiences with the program. Because the most important information we could get was from those who had participated in the program, this evaluation used interviews as one of its primary sources of information.

Protocols for the interviews were developed after an examination of the LLTT goals listed in the proposal of the program. Three individuals were interviewed in-depth for the purpose of developing short case studies. They were selected randomly from a list of twenty-five participants who graduated from the program. It was originally planned that all participants would be interviewed, however, it was difficult to reach the participants. Many of the people contacted had moved, were not available, had disconnected phones, were very busy, or had numbers that were difficult to locate.

Summary of the Participant Interviews

In summary, there were mixed reactions about the program. Some participants praised it highly and others were negative toward certain aspects of it. However, the negative comments were not directed at the program objectives, but rather at the way it was being implemented. These participants felt that if the program had been implemented the way it was originally set out, then it would have been highly successful. They described the people in the program as a key element in making a difference in the way the program was conducted. Some participants attributed some of their success in the program to those persons who took the extra time and effort to help them. They felt that if there were more people such as this then the program would have been better.

The participants felt the program helped them in a variety of ways such as improving their educational standing and providing them with job skills. They all liked the literacy component and felt it was an extremely significant element of the program. The job skills component helped them develop a specialized skill for the job market. For some this was crucial because they did not have any skills upon entering the program. Some of the other skills learned included critical thinking skills, computer skills, and interviewing skills.

The three former inmates interviewed, who we will call Jack, Rick, and Dale had a lot to say about their experience. Different things helped different people. The critical thinking seminar, according to Dale, gave him "the ability to weigh situations in a rational manner" in order to "resolve them in a conducive manner." The life and job skills were also very beneficial. The job skills would have been more beneficial if more assistance and equipment had been provided claims Dale.

Feelings of self worth increased after participating in the program for Jack. He received his high school diploma at the age of 39, which made him feel very proud. He described himself as the "proudest Norwegian in the state of Minnesota." As a result of going through the program Jack tries to encourage young people not to repeat his mistakes.

Making the Transition to the Outside World

The job skills learned in the program helped Dale make the transition into the world of work because he learned a specialized skill--welding. Jack learned interpersonal skills that helped him to get along with people. The one thing he feared the most was being rejected by others. Rick appreciated the transition officer who helped him find a place to live and a job after he left the program. He felt that it was important for a person to have support as he/she tries to adjust to the outside world.

The literacy skills learned were generally helpful. Dale found the reading skills to be most beneficial. The specific skill he pointed out included distinguishing fiction from fact. He also found the critical thinking and computer skills to be beneficial. For Jack all the literacy skills were helpful.

Staff Interviews

Three staff members were interviewed to gain a perspective of the Literacy, Life Skills, Training and Transition Program within the organizational context.

The first to be interviewed was a literacy instructor. This particular instructor has held the position since August of 1995. Coming into the position after the LLTT program had already been implemented, she was unsure as to whether or not she could be considered an LLTT instructor. Her confusion was due, in part, to a high turnover in staff and some communication difficulties within the facility. Being a relatively new facility member and the LLTT being a new program, staff is given a certain amount of leeway in defining their positions. In order to better serve the inmates within the literacy program, this instructor determined that a formal classroom setting would not be the most efficient way to serve learners who are at different literacy levels. Consequently, she devised a way to individualize instruction.

Inmates are assessed as to their literacy level upon entering the facility. Those with a reading level below fifth grade remain in the education program for the full day. Those who are at the 5th to 8th grade level spend a half day in education and a half day in industry (vocational training) gaining on the job training.

While the inmates are in education, the instructor works with them to determine areas of weakness. She then provides individual assignments in reading, writing and math. Educational aides handle actual one-on-one instruction. Once a week the instructor meets with the inmate individually to determine where they are at in their work.

A newly reintroduced position, that of transition agent, was introduced at this correctional facility in 1996. However, during this year there were three different transition agents. The transition agent that started with the LLTT program left in April. A second transition agent was

only on board for the month of May. The current transition agent assumed the role in September of 1996. Consequently there was an interruption in transition services during the summer. As with the other individuals in education, the transition agent does not work exclusively with LLTT program participants, but must share time and talents with all inmates.

The third staff to be interviewed was the Director of Education. The Director of Education was instrumental in designing the original grant proposal. She has been involved with all phases of the LLTT program since it's inception.

Definitions of Success

The definition of a successful transition revolve around the inmate being able to return to their families and community with the skills to obtain a job and to become a contributing member of society.

According to the education director, there are various degrees in a successful transition. At the very least the inmate gets out and stays out, then gets a job within a month. To be even more successful they get a job that they are trained for at a livable wage with benefits. Factors that make a difference in a successful transition include a supportive family and a supportive intimate relationship with a wife or girlfriend.

The literacy teacher and the transition agent believe that success in the LLTT program depends on a number of things. Most important is the motivation of the inmates. Inmates would not have pursued their education without being given the option of a mix of education and hands on training. A successful transition is more possible if the inmate has something lined up before they are released.

Evaluation Challenges

There are many challenges to the assessment of educational programs, especially when studying life style changes. Within corrections there are also specific limitations imposed by the systems (Newman et al., 1993). Even though the specific evaluation techniques were built into the grant proposal, education in corrections historically resists evaluation and data on inmates is difficult to track. Newman, et al (1993) found this to be true in most programs studied and it presents greatest barrier to effective assessment. In addition, the status of the offenders is that of a vulnerable population. all participants must be volunteers, which reduces the ability to make generalizations regarding the findings.

Once the offender reaches the expiration of their sentence, they are no longer able to be located through the corrections system. Indeed, even while on probation, the state of Minnesota requires that there be no contact between corrections staff within the facilities and the released offender. This makes the transition process difficult as the probation agent takes over only after release. The reintroduction of the position of transition agent becomes all the more important as this is the only individual who can move from correctional facility to the outside with the inmate. In the case of the Faribault LLTT program, having a transition agent in place was itself a challenge. During the third year of the project, there were three different transition agents. This staff turnover, together with turnover in literacy instructors, accounted for most of the negative comments about the program.

Summary

The evaluation of the Faribault Literacy, Life Skills, Training and Transition (FLLTT) project highlighted many challenges to the assessment of educational programs, specifically those

taking place in a correctional setting. Measures of learning: tests, profiles, and assessment tools have been shown to have limited results, especially when an offender is newly incarcerated (Newman et al., 1993). The offenders often have multiple social and cognitive problems that contributed to their incarceration in addition to low levels of literacy nd a lake of job skills.

This project attempted to set in place a program that could address, and evaluate multiple factors in the education and return of the offender to the larger community. The program was evaluated in three stages. It was designed to broadly educate with an emphasis on practical application. At the end of the first year a sound educational program was firmly in place. Measures of literacy levels, self-esteem and global worth profile were administered to consider the multiple factors that contribute to educational progress. Year two of the project showed a significant increase in the inmates self-perceptions. The third and final year emphasized the problems and need for a system that ensured a successful transition to the community. The program has been considered a success, although there were a number of implementation problems, most notably---limited staff, time being shared with the prison population in general, and a new emphasis on transition, with the position of transition agent still being defined. Reports by participants who have returned to the community show that there have been benefits in employment and in life skills. However, no longitudinal studies have been done to determine recidivism rates.

After completing this evaluation, this author has more questions about evaluation in general. With more emphasis being put on accountability in education, how do we successfully evaluate our programs? Is it even possible to determine long term change in individuals? Ongoing study needs to continue to determine how to best evaluate educational programs both in corrections and elsewhere.

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Mary Katherine Cooper, University of Minnesota, Department of Work, Community, and Family Education, 1954 Buford Avenue, St. Paul, MN 55108. Email: coop0077@tc.umn.edu

THE HIDDEN IMPACT OF AMERICAN ADULT EDUCATORS ON INTERNATIONAL GRADUATE STUDENTS.

German Cutz
Pierre J. Atchade

ABSTRACT

This paper explores the long-term impact that American educators have had on international graduate students. From November 1997 to July 1998, thirty non-American professionals, who had completed a graduate degree in the United States, were contacted by electronic mail (e-mail). In addition, 20 selected American faculty members were interviewed. Non-American professionals differentiated the specific and general long-term impact. The specific impact affected their current job, but the general impact included 8 areas: 1) changing teaching approaches, 2) enhancing professional quality, 3) promoting critical thinking, 4) changing personal behaviors, 5) providing research skills, 6) diversifying professional background, 7) enhancing self-directed learning, and 8) creating international relationships. On the other hand, 80 percent (16/20) of faculties reported that they do not know how to assess their teaching impact on international graduate students who returned home. All faculties interviewed (20/20) agreed in that they selected the content and teaching materials to meet the objectives of their courses, not students' needs. However, 50 percent (10/20) of faculties believed that their teaching content is relevant to international students.

Introduction

Every year nearly half million international students are enrolled in higher education in the United States. The quality of teaching linked to the availability of resources such as libraries, computer services, or research institutions, have proved to be one of the American unviersities' major strengths in education. Oaklief (1990), who conducted a short-term evaluation (up to one year) involving American students, reported that 75 percent of the graduate students graded the quality of teaching as "good" or "superior". However, when looking for long-term (more than one year) evaluations with international students, American universities have done little or nothing to learn about the impact of their faculty on international graduate students. In the long-term, American educators ignored what changes they promoted through their teaching, what impact remains in their disciples over time, and how international graduate students believe they have been impacted by American educators. The present study attempts to discover the impact that American adult educators have had on international students in the long-term, after completing their degrees in the United States.

Statement of the Problem and Research Questions

Studies addressing the impact of American education on international students (Henscke, 1990; Oaklief, 1990; Cutz, 1995; Kagan & Tippins, 1995), have focused on the short-term impact or the immediate reaction that teaching styles, learning styles, environment, or content of classes have generated on international students. However, lack of information about the long-term impact on international students has brought criticism from educators who believe that international students, are unimportant to American universities, or simply they are not sincerely served (Kagan & Tippins, 1995, p.148). Long-term impact studies on international students are necessary for American faculty up-to-date their curricula relative to the students' needs, because

"if programs were not causally related to people's interests, why would it matter which educational programs were constructed? Educational programs matter because they are statements of how the world should be different and people's interests determine their important futures (Cervero and Wilson, 1994; p.258)." The primary question for this study was: "What has been the impact of American educators on international students in the long-term?" Secondary questions were: "How do non-American professionals describe the long-term impact caused by their education in the United States?" "Are American educators aware of their long-term impact on international students?" How do American educators take into account international students' educational needs?

Methodology

From November 3, 1997 to July 15, 1998, data were gathered from non-American professionals, who completed a graduate degree in an American university, and from selected faculty members of Ball State University. A list of 98 non-American professionals, from nine countries, was drawn from descriptions of universities around the world advertised on web sites. These descriptions included information such as name, e-mail address, degree, where and when was the degree completed. Respondents, who were sent e-mail messages, were explained the purpose of the study and asked for permission to use their data. The messages were written in English including a five-question questionnaire. Seven of 98 messages could not be delivered because of unknown addresses. Thirty-three persons replied to the message; but three of them did not provided useable information. The sample was divided into, 4 masters and 26 doctors graduated before 1997. There were 22 male (20 Ph.D.; 2 Masters) and 8 female (7 Ph.D.; 1 Master). On the other hand, twenty faculty members at Ball State University were interviewed. A ten-question interview was used to gather data. Eight faculties were interviewed personally, and twelve by phone. Data were categorized and analyzed using descriptive statistical methods.

Summary of Findings

Description of non-American professionals

Respondents were associated with universities of the following countries: Argentina (3 persons), Australia (6), Brazil (3), Bulgaria (3), Chile (1), Colombia (1), Cyprus (5), Czech Republic (2), and Ecuador (6). The length of time spent from completing their degrees in the United States ranged from 1 to 8 years and more, but 50 percent (15/30) of the respondents spent from 4 to 6 years. Seventy-three percent (22/30) of the respondent completed their degrees between 1981 and 1995. There were 15 professional areas in which the respondents had completed a degree, but four areas accounted 64 percent of the sample (19/30): Economics (9 persons), engineering (5), Education (3) and Mathematics (2). Other professional areas such as Environmental Sciences, Human Resources, Health Sciences, Communications, Computer Science, etc. reported one person each. Seventy-three percent (22/30) of the respondents were professors whose primary activities were teaching and research. Thirteen percent (4/30) of the persons were chairs and three percent (1/30) vice-chairs. Persons holding either position were teaching and administrating. Three percent (1/30) were deans whose primary activity was administration, and seven percent (2/30) were vice-deans whose primary activities were administration and teaching.

Description of Selected American Faculty Members

The study involved twenty professors of Ball State University. Seventy five percent (15/20) were male and twenty five percent (5/20) were female. Faculty members were teaching

graduate courses at five departments: a) Computer Science (4 male and 1 female), b) Mathematics (4 male), c) Educational Leadership (5 male and 2 female), d) Higher Education (1 male and 1 female), and e) English (1 male and 1 female).

Findings Related to Research Questions

The primary question for this study was "What has been the impact of American educators on international students in the long-term?" Respondents were asked to describe the impact of American educators on their current jobs. To maintain respondents' confidentiality, their names will not be used, instead, they will appear as Respondent #1, #2, etc. Five areas, in which their jobs have been impacted as a result of their education in the United States, were categorized.

Table 1: Impact of American Educators on International Graduate Students' Jobs.

Area of Impact	Persons	Percentage
1. Getting jobs	13	48%
2. Broadening Teaching Skills	5	19%
3. Improving Research Skills	5	18%
4. Providing Technical Skills	3	11%
5. Improving self-confidence	1	4%
Total	27	100%

1) Getting jobs: Respondents indicated that because of their education in the United States they have gotten a faculty position in their country. Respondent #20 said, "I actually owe my job to my American education," and respondent # 24 said, "a Ph.D. degree from a distinguished USA university is a great asset in getting a teaching job anywhere in the world."

2) Broadening Teaching Skills: Respondents described forms in which their teaching skills had been broadened because of their education in the United States. Respondent #18 said, "my Ph.D. and of course the experience of doing it, helps a big deal to shape up my own approach to teaching. In one statement, I could not be doing what I do now at the level I am able to do it without my graduate studies," and respondent #20 said, "I have incorporated all the acquired knowledge during my studies [in USA] into my courses."

3) Improving Research Skills: Respondents were applying the research skills learned from their former professors in the United States and reported that those research skills had been incorporated into their jobs. Respondent #28 said, "my current research topics and methods are completely determined by my education as a graduate student in USA," and respondent #9 said, "during my Ph.D. I acquired important research skills which have had an impact on everything I do in my job."

4) Providing Technical Skills: These skills were related to the ability to perform certain technical and/or specialized duties. Respondent #19 said, "my degree has provided me technical skills for specialist teaching areas (i.e. respiratory science, muscle and cardiovascular physiology) and respondent #22 said, "the knowledge I acquired during my education [in USA] has helped me in the evaluation of economic reports, economic policies, etc."

5) Improving self-confidence: Although the other four areas may contribute to improve self-confidence, only one respondent addressed this issue directly. Respondent #25 said, "I can

summarize the impact of American educators on myself as follows: It has improved my self-confidence."

The first secondary question "How do international graduate students describe their long-term impact caused by their education in the United States?" explored the long-term impact beyond respondents' current job. Respondents were asked to reflect on all the areas in which they believed were impacted, not only their current job, as a result of their educational experience in the United States. Data collected resulted in eight areas described by non-American Professionals.

Table 2: Areas Impacted by American Educators as described by Non-American Professionals.

Area of Impact	Persons	Percentage
1. Changing Teaching Approaches	8	27%
2. Enhancing Professional Quality	7	24%
3. Promoting Critical Thinking	4	13%
4. Changing Personal Behaviors	4	13%
5. Providing Research Skills	3	10%
6. Diversifying Professional Background	2	7%
7. Enhancing Self-directed Learning	1	3%
8. Creating International Relationships	1	3%
Total	30	100%

1) Changing Teaching Approaches: Teaching approaches had been changed or improved; the impact is seen positively. Respondent #3 said, "my approach to higher education has been changed; I am much better than before." Respondent #R21 said, "I learned some different ways of teaching that I proposed modifications in our curricula based on my experience [in the United States]." Respondent #R23 said, "I learned the techniques of teaching and conducting research from my American professors."

2) Enhancing Professional Quality: Quality was described in many forms such as prestige that professionals graduated in the United States have, professional reputation as a result of their degree, or professional qualifications for job competitions. Respondent #2 said, "In the University where I am teaching, having a degree from an American institution is considered very important." Respondent #-4 said, "the high quality standards that one sees in an American university have a profound impact on one's department."

3) Promoting Critical Thinking: The impact on this are was described by using phrases such as extended my way of thinking, broadened my thinking or American education has taught me to think. Respondent #16 said, "American educators extended my way of thinking. Now, I try to be as imaginative in my teaching strategies as many of my lecturers were." Respondent #20 said, "As for me, American education has taught me to think." Respondent #R25 said, "American educators have broadened my thinking."

4) Changing Personal Behaviors: There were certain personal behaviors such as work habits, cultural norms, care for students, and responsibility, the respondents had changed because of their education in the United States. Respondent #15 said, "There is a very different work ethics in the USA (better use of time, no breaks for tea, for example). I am able to use the work habits I learned in USA to be more productive here." Respondent #27 said, "American educators dislike

rethorics and ask you to get to the point. This cultural norm affected me a deal. I do find myself interested more in the outcome and quality of the argument, rather than the way it is presented."

5) Providing Research Skills: The emphasis on creative discussions, application of strict academic standards, and the quality of the research conducted in the United States impacted respondents' research skills. Respondent #1 said, "To do serious research, the environment of creative discussion in the United States Academia is fundamental." Respondent #27 said, "American professors apply strict academic standards and know how to direct research."

6) Diversifying Professional Background: Covering more than one subject and not narrowing their education to one has diversified international graduate students' professional background. Respondent #7 said, "The USA's graduate programs offer a great deal more training in different subjects than European Programs, which are limited in course requirements." Respondent #20 said, "The Bulgarian system, which is an exact copy of the German, imparts highly specialized knowledge on one discipline. Conversely, the American system teaches students through critical thinking and experience. I believe it is the American type of education that weneed (sick)."

7) Enhancing Self-Directed Learning: There was a belief that the education in the United States enhanced self-directed learning. Respondent #20 said, "American educators are often perceived as superficial because they do not aim at imparting some precious knowledge. They give you a know-how so that you can continue educating yourself."

8) Creating International relationships: Maintaining communication with their former professors in the United States was beneficial to international graduate students. Respondent #8 said, "For people in my position (professor), the continuing links we have with former professors is very beneficial."

The second secondary question was "Are American educators aware of their long-term impact on international students?" Faculties were asked to report ways of communicating with former international students, at least one year after they returned to their homeland. They were also asked to describe how many times they had communicated with their international graduate students and in which occasions, and finally how they viewed their long-term impact on international students. Only twenty percent (4/20) of the faculties, in computer sciences, mathematics and English Department, had communicated through e-mail and visited with their international students, one year after they returned to their homeland. One professor reported that she helped a Saudi Arabian student who developed a computer program to change the entire department of finance in his country. Eighty percent (16/20) of the faculty reported that they did not know how to assess the impact of their teaching on international students. They did not have any communication with their former international students after they had returned (if they did) to their homeland.

The third secondary question was "How do American educators take into account international students' educational needs?" Faculties were asked to describe how they selected the content and the materials used for teaching (books, handouts, videos, etc.), and to describe their relevance to international graduate students. The entirely selected faculty members (20/20) reported that they selected the content and the material to meet the objectives of the course [not students' needs]. They upgraded the content of the course to take into consideration new theories

and technologies. On the question of the relevance of the content and materials to international students, fifty percent (10/20) of the faculties, specifically in the computer sciences, mathematics, and English Departments, said that their teaching is relevant to international student. They strongly argued that computer and mathematics use terminology that is universal and then, they cannot find any difference between international students and American students. One female professor in English Department reported that she communicated (by e-mail) with a student who shared with her that his education helped him to gain a leadership position in his country. In other areas such as educational leadership, higher education, thirty percent (6/20) recognized that the context should be taken into consideration. For them the direct relevance was not obvious. One interviewee said: "most of international students become acquainted with the US. We are really supportive of the international students' intentions and we help them to understand program evaluation in their context." Another interviewee said: "more efforts should be made to include international students particular needs in the program." However, five percent (1/20) said that she included the international component in the curriculum to reach out varieties of students.

Implications of the Findings for Practice

Based upon statements collected from non-American professionals, who completed a graduate degree in an American university, it is safe to suggest that American adult educators have, positively, accomplished the purpose of their teaching. McElhinney and Fleming (1997) said that, "an important purpose of teaching at the graduate level in adult, continuing and community education is to change some of the important behaviors of learners (p.148)." However, these important changes have been made under the assumption that the content and objectives of graduate courses are relevant to international students' needs. American faculty does not know how to assess the impact of their teaching on international graduate students. If this is the case, paradoxically, American educators are denying one of the primary principles of adult education: assessing and meeting adults' needs. To overcome the gap between teaching purposes and international students' needs American faculty needs up-to-date their curriculum. One way is to consider those areas in which international graduate students have been impacted, especially in the long-term.

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German Cutz, Ed.D. Assistant Professor. Department of Modern Languages and Classics. Ball State University, Muncie, IN 47306. E-mail: grcutzsaq@hotmail.com

Pierre Atchade, Doctoral Student. Department of Educational Leadership. Teachers College. Ball State University, Muncie, IN 47306. E-mail: 00pjatchade@bsuvc.bsu.edu

THE URBAN CONTEXT: EXAMINING AN AREA FOR FOSTERING ADULT EDUCATION PRACTICE

Barbara J. Daley
James C. Fisher
Larry G. Martin

ABSTRACT

In this paper, the uniqueness of the urban context will be described and two major postmodern themes impacting the practice of adult education in the urban context will be examined. These themes will be explored in four areas of urban adult education practice and specific implications drawn. The intent of this paper is to stimulate discussion of the role that context, specifically the urban context, plays in the changing nature of adult education practice within postmodern times.

The Urban Context

Cities, the urban context and metropolitan areas are a crucial part of the landscape of adult education practice. In this paper, we will scrutinize the uniqueness of the urban context and analyze how this uniqueness provides a vehicle foe understanding the challenges and opportunities inherent in adult education practice.

According to the U.S. Census Bureau, "urban" for the 1990 census refers mainly to places of 2,500 or more persons incorporated as cities, villages, boroughs and towns. This definition is amplified by the U.S. Office of Management and Budget's use of "metropolitan are" to describe that "core area containing a large population nucleus, together with adjacent communities having a high degree of economic and social integration with that core." The percent of the population defined as urban in 1990 was 75.2%, compared with 64% in 1950 and 35% in 1890. Although measures of "urban" have been redefined over time, it is clear that the percent of the nation's population living in urban areas has doubled during the past century.

The dynamic flavor of a metropolitan setting is derived from its people who se overreaching characteristic is sharp contrasts in language, race and ethnicity, culture, and economic and educational status. Cities are home to the wealthiest, the poorest, the oldest, and the newest residents of an area. Immigrants from other lands, as well as from other parts of the country find homes in cities.

Cities provide abundant options for education, entertainment, employment, and service. Cities traditionally house the repositories of a nation's culture and history, filling libraries, museums, galleries, concert halls, and theaters with artifacts and monuments to acclaim the accomplishments of individuals and groups. The highly educated and those accomplished in the arts, culture, and entertainment exist in proximity with those seeking to meet their most basic physiological and safety needs. Yet institutions of commerce, education, and service are often distanced from many of the populations they are established to serve.

Cities are also seats of economic and political power, the power of population density, the power of groups. Possessors of power exist in propinquity with those who feel powerless to change either themselves or their situation. Cities are home to voices of the powerful and the powerless, to the marginalized whose calls have gone unheard and whose share in the decision-making process has gone unrealized. Modern skyscrapers owned by the world's largest banks cast their shadows on welfare recipients demonstrating for a larger share of the nation's wealth.

The metropolitan laboratory presents a demonstration of adult education lived under

parallel and conflicting paradigms. Soja (1989) suggests that these competing paradigms exist in the urban context because of the historical relationship between the "core" and the adjacent areas. Historically, the urban core has been the location of the powerful and those holding the greatest share of economic prosperity. As cities have shifted to the postmodern context, relationships in the urban setting have shifted, thus bringing multiple groups in closer interaction and physical proximity. A part of the city that supports the stability of the whole and seeks to maintain unity among the values represented by its constituent elements. Simultaneously, others emphasize the element and its values rather than participating in the larger society, enamored of change rather than stability. Although these paradigms are usually presented as alternative ways to view society, in the metropolitan setting they exist side by side, placing their competing demands on individuals and groups, and achieving their ends in part through adult education programs.

Adult Education in the Urban Context

"Adult educators tend to see 'lifelong learning' in a transcendental and largely psychologistic way. They this fail to locate it in contemporary social developments" (Bryant, Usher & Johnson, p. 20). Within the urban context, two major themes or social developments serve as a frame of reference for discussing the changing and evolving practice of adult education. The shift from schools of thought to marketization and the breakdown of "grand narratives" both impact the goals, purposes and delivery of adult education.

The shift from schools of thought to marketization de-emphasizes adult education as a disciplined field of study and redefines the field as a marketplace in which students and employers are regarded as consumers. Since the original purpose of urbanization was for economic and social integration, marketization is a prominent trend enhanced through the very nature of the organization of urban space.

Simultaneously, grand narratives regarding long held views of education are being called into question. Within modern times certain expectations or grand narratives framed the purpose of adult education as contributing to the improvement of individuals. A central tenant was that engagement in educational activities could sustain, improve and enhance individuals and their economic standing within the community. Today, within an urban context, there exists a constant questioning and examination of this narrative. The demise of grand narratives has led to a decentering of knowledge and contributed to "an erosion of the liberal curriculum and an emphasis on learning opportunities that optimize the efficiency of the economic and social system" (Bryant, Usher, & Johnson, p. 9). We will argue that the shifting, complex and often conflicting nature of these themes contributes to the uniqueness of adult education in the urban context.

We will discuss the shift to marketization and the breakdown of grand narratives as they exist in four areas of urban adult education practice: 1) university graduate programs in adult education; 2) workplace education programs; 3) leisure and enrichment programs; and 4) literacy, basic education, and life skills programs.

University Graduate Programs in Adult Education

Two perspectives seem to have emerged simultaneously and have encouraged each other's development as dominant frames of reference in higher education; managing the university as a business, and viewing the student as a consumer. The former results in the use of criteria such as balance sheet approached, cost-benefit ratios and valuing of programs as educational commodities, as lenses through which to view programs and courses.

To the extent that the university is a business, its students and those who hire its students become consumers. The consequences of this redefinition are extensive. The elevated role of

students as consumers increases their leverage in determining program content, location, delivery methods, media, and cost. Needs and wants of students replace the requirements of the discipline; concerns for relevance and utility take precedence over time-honored program priorities based on faculty expertise or professional standards. The leverage of the students as consumer is exerted in other ways as well: programs compete for product sales (student enrollment) by providing educational options which emphasize convenience using asynchronous and non-classroom based learning settings, emphasizing relevance rather than rigor, and developing partnerships with consumers and their employers in order to assure a level of consumer satisfaction which results in a constant stream of new consumers.

One further consequence of the marketization of graduate programs in adult education is the impact of the job market in determining curricular content and emphases. Job opportunities in program development in both the profit and non-profit sectors have encouraged the creation of courses designed to provide instrumental skills which serve that need; conversely, the absence of job opportunities in the area of adult basic education has diminished offerings to a minimum, despite the importance of adult literacy instruction to the overall field and practice of adult education.

The second theme, the breakdown of grand narratives, which impacts adult education graduate programs in urban areas is tightly tied to the issue of marketization. Changing views of the purpose of adult education have called into question the liberal humanistic tradition on which adult education graduate programs are based. This is seen most dramatically in the current shift to a human resource development emphasis within adult education programs. Graduate programs focusing on human resource development have begun to view education as the means to increase performance in the workplace and thus, these programs have increased the emphasis on performance improvement, competencies and educational outcomes. Part of this shift relates to the marketization of adult education, but a large part is based on the changing view of education. Within the postmodern arena, there is less emphasis on a discipline specific body of knowledge and greater emphasis on performance. In this view, it is not education that leads to a better quality of life, but work. As a result in adult education graduate programs we see a shift to educating educators to improve performance of employees, while also improving the performance of educators themselves. These changes are intricately linked with both marketization forces and breakdown of the belief in education.

Another grand narrative that comes into question in adult education graduate programs is the belief in a scientific base of knowledge needed to obtain a graduate degree. Scientific rationality as a paradigm in graduate education is being challenged by multiple, interlocking and overlapping paradigms ranging from scientific to interpretivist, to radical, to critical. It appears that questioning the epistemological position of graduate adult education is central to the educational process in urban areas because these different philosophical positions come under challenge in the classroom, as well as, in the day-to-day urban context from which diverse groups of students attending graduate programs are drawn. Within the urban adult education graduate program context, the voices of many groups continually challenge knowledge claims and practice in adult education.

Workplace Education Programs

Similar trends from content-based learning have occurred in the training and staff development programs of most workplaces. Marketization has emphasized efficiency in program delivery and minimalism in program content, providing only that content that the employee needs to know at the prescribed time. The breakdown of the grand narrative in education has

substituted performance for understanding and workplace education rather than education foe personal development. Again these changes are striking in the urban context because of the postmodern compression of time. Time is a commodity to be managed, and education is valuable only as it relates to improving efficiency and decreasing the time taken to accomplish tasks in the workplace. As the grand narrative of education diminishes, workplace educators find themselves developing career mobility programs designed around the idea of shifting jobs or positions in the workplace every two years. Education is seldom provided to prepare the employee for the shift, rather the job is assigned and the education is offered as a secondary mechanism to improve performance.

In workplace education, the consumer assumes several identities. At one level, the employee as learner is the consumer, and in many workplaces, has been given increasing responsibility to identify what s/he needs to know in order to be more productive. At another level, many employees are charged with the responsibility of teaching colleagues in order to improve colleagues' productivity. Frequently leaders in on-the-job training are fellow workers, thereby expanding the definition of consumer to include both the mentor and the protege. The definition of consumer of workplace education expands still further to include the employing organization and its stockholders who insist upon and benefit from the cost-efficiency and increase in worker competence which results from human resource development activities.

A dominant commodity in marketization is often less the reality of substance and content and more the image created by sound, graphics, color, and movement (Bryant, usher, & Johnston, p. 10). Emphasis on images dominates employee education programs in order to capture the attention and increase the entertainment value of programs. Workplace educators have been leaders in the use of technologies as they have emerged: use of the computer as a presentation tool, and web-based training programs. The use of web-based training has allowed employees access to training and performance resources when the resources are needed and at the time convenient to the user. Such individualized freedom of access in conjunction with the employee's identification of his/her training needs has served to blur the boundary between learning and work. This plethora of learning opportunities derived from the problem-solving activity of the workplace has dramatically enlarged the pool of training providers. Formerly limited to training and staff development specialists, currently independent consultants, software and video developers, and product vendors from outside the human resource development specialty are engaged tin the larger workplace learning effort.

While most workplace learning occurs on time for which the employee is paid by the employer, many employers provide learning centers where employees, on their own time (during breaks, before and after work, etc.) and on their own initiative may participate in learning activities designed to increase their individual competence in literacy, numeracy, computers and digital instrument usage, etc. Participation in learning center activities is dependant on the initiative of the employee to acknowledge his/her own learning wants and needs and to take steps to address them, thereby extending the definition of the employee as consumer of learning in order to secure his/her place in employment marketplace. However, the grand narrative of education for advancement has been rejected by many blue color workers. They do not participate in workplace education to the extent of their counterparts in other occupations. Davis-Harrison (1998) has found that many are not willing to sacrifice the opportunity that could be used to accrue more income.

Leisure and Enrichment Programs

According to national Household Education Survey, "about one-fifth of adults

participated in work-related courses, and about the same fraction participated in personal development courses" (Kim, et al., 1995). The popularity of personal enrichment programs chosen for leisure time usage is the result of increased levels of educational attainment throughout the adult population, early retirements and increasing numbers of older adults – each cohort better educated then the proceeding – as these groups look increasingly to learning activities as ways to use leisure time constructively, illustrating the post-modernist contention that distinctions between leisure, entertainment, and education have been blurred.

The marketization of leisure and enrichment education has important consequences: First, it appeals to that segment of the population who are comfortable filling their leisure time with activities which focus on visits to new places or exploration of new ideas, experiences, and values – an important driving force in a consumption society according to the postmodernists. Second, such activities appeal to those who can afford to participate financially, thereby eliminating participants in lower socioeconomic strata. Third, marketization of leisure education activities limits consumer options to those likely to be economically successful to the provider, thereby decreasing the probability that offerings will address the contributive and influence needs of the adults. Marketization has resulted in learning devoted to entertainment of the individual rather than learning for the elevation of the common good. This again links to the breakdown of the grand narratives in education. Education is not for the common good, but to improve quality in leisure activities.

With the demise of grand narratives in education, leisure education has become a way to maintain separateness in social economic groups within the city. As the boundaries of leisure and education have blurred, only a select group can afford leisure education. By marketing to these higher socioeconomic groups, adult educators in the urban context have attempted to assure the survival of their programs, but in doing so have increased the power differential in already elite powerful groups in the city. For other groups in the urban context, leisure may be redefined as a time to escape the reality of poverty. Consequently, illicit drug use and abuse parallel the use of leisure time with educational and learning programs.

Literacy, Basic Skills, and Life Skills Programs

Literacy and basic skills programs exist in American cities because of the large numbers of immigrants as well as low literate native-born. Basic skills programs comprise those where participation is required in order to receive other benefits. To the extent that learners come voluntarily to programs provided by schools, two year colleges, and community-based organizations, they may be regarded as consumers, although there is little evidence that their discrete needs have impacted these programs in any measurable way. Similar programs are available to persons requires to participate in order to receive welfare or other benefits.

Recent changes in policy and law governing welfare and other assistance programs have reduced required literacy and basic skills programs and in their place have substituted job readiness training and other education programs related to work. These changes have had several impacts: a first consequence is the transfer of the consumer responsibility to the employer under whose oversight literacy and basic skills training needs are determined by job-related literacy requirements and where basic skills training is integrated with job-related training, thereby blurring the boundary between basic skills.

A second consequence has been the blurring of the boundary between basic skills training and job preparation. Those charged with assisting the poor in applying for jobs often find they must provide literacy instruction as an integral component of job preparation.

Third, work has replaced education in the grand narrative of the dominant culture as the

means by which to progress economically in society. From the urban perspective, the changing view of education is significant because educational institutions and the urban population have relied on defining education as a way to improve the quality of life. An example is seen in the changing nature of welfare initiatives. Education, particularly literacy education, is no longer seen as the vehicle leading to employment. Rather employment is viewed as experiential learning and is mandated as the vehicle to optimize the economic and social system sometimes to the detriment of the individual. Powerful stakeholders within the urban context have shifted to mandating jobs for former welfare recipients rather than advocating education. The responsibility foe a beneficiary's education rests no longer with the program, but with the person, thereby imposing on the person the role of consumer. Also, there is increasing resistance by targeted consumers to the educational program provided by literacy agencies. Charges of racism and cultural insensitivity lead some low literate learners to reject traditional programs (Sparks, 1998).

Implications and Conclusions

The complexity of an urban area along with the diversity of the population leads to widely divergent views on grand narratives and the shift to marketization. Graduate, leisure, literacy, and workplace education programs have all felt the impact of these themes. The uniqueness of these shifting views in the urban context relates to the complexity of the environment. Within this complex environment, multiple groups come into contact with each other often in adult education programs. Differences in the urban area are accentuated because if an increasing recognition of difference and an understanding that difference not only exists but is fundamental to city life. However, "a diversity of meanings, lifestyle choices and identities still has to be seen within a network of power relation; to have difference recognized within the relations of everyday life still involves struggle and contestation against dominance and subordination" (Bryant, Usher & Johnston, p. 6). "As we become aware of and in closer contact with diversity we recognize that it is the difference rather than the sameness which is most significant and that indeed sameness can only be maintained through the repression of difference" (Bryant, Usher & Johnston, p. 7).

Yet, despite the fact that the purposes and goals of adult education are being questioned, within the urban context new forms of education are developing. "As education in the postmodern becomes detached from legitimizing grand narratives, it becomes increasingly implicated with specific cultural contexts"(Bryant, Usher & Johnston, p. 15). No where is this more evident than in the urban context. As enrollments in more traditional, liberal adult education programs have decreased, interest and attendance at more specific cultural programs have increased. For example, programs in the authors' urban area have been developed to understand the health care needs of the Hmong population, to teach Spanish to educators, health care workers and workplace supervisors, and to promote international understanding among business professionals.

Implied in the breakdown of the grand narratives in education and the shift to marketization is the need for adult educators to examine their own practice. Adult education in the urban context will be required to redefine the goals and purposes of the educational program, to reexamine the audiences and populations served, and finally, to develop an appreciation for the uncertainty of the role of adult education within this context.

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Barbara J. Daley, James C. Fisher, Larry G. Martin, University of Wisconsin – Milwaukee, Dept of Administrative Leadership, P.O. Box 413, Milwaukee, WI, 53201.
E-mail: bdaley@uwm.edu; jcfisher@uwm.edu; lmartin@soe.uwm.edu

LOW-LITERATE BLUE-COLLAR MALE WORKERS: NON-PARTICIPATION IN ADULT LITERACY PROGRAMS

Deryl Davis-Harrison
Larry G. Martin

ABSTRACT

Employment-based programs offer opportunities for low-literate workers to organize, plan, and prioritize work; effectively communicate with co-workers; work within organizational norms; and balance work, career, and personal goals. However, despite a heightened awareness of market needs and increased technologically induced job losses in low-skills occupations, many low-literate blue-collar workers steadfastly refuse to participate in workplace literacy programs. This interpretive case study of the non-participation behavior of thirteen blue-collar male workers identified seven themes that captured and illuminated their reasons for not participating in literacy programs.

Problem Statement

The traditional blue-collar employee has a strong work ethic, a powerful commitment to specific employers, and a set of core values toward work, family and community that has propelled the growth of the U.S. economy during the twentieth century. As we prepare to move into the twentieth-first century, the education and skills of workers will need to be improved in order for U.S. Corporations to remain competitive in the world market. With the signing of international trade agreements, the restructuring of corporations, the slowdown in the creation of new jobs, and other socio-economic trends, there are concomitant demands for higher levels of literacy among all employees. In addition, high paying jobs for workers with low skills and low-literacy levels are declining (National Institute on Literacy, 1994). Although similar jobs will be available, the salaries will be commensurate with the skill levels of employees. Consequently, low-literate, low-skilled workers will have more difficulty finding jobs, resulting in longer periods of unemployment. The National Institute on Literacy (1994) predicts that, both older and more experienced; and younger, inexperienced low-literate workers are most likely to be affected by these changes and they will thereby face the dual problem of declining wages and limited occupational options.

There are over sixteen million laborers in the United States and 32% of them have not completed high school nor earned a GED; additionally 28.1% of all assemblers are low-skilled and have not obtained a high school diploma or GED (National Institute for Literacy, 1994). Also, a national survey of employers from small (less than 50 employees) and medium-sized business firms (more than 50 but less than 500 employees) found that between 25 and 40 percent of hourly workers have some basic skills difficulties. More specifically, 15 to 25 percent of workers were identified as having difficulties with reading or writing, whereas 25% or more identified difficulties with math, problem solving or interpersonal skills (Hollenbeck, 1993). It has been documented that "Workers who improve their basic skills through participation in workplace literacy programs should be more productive and hence earn higher wages and have greater job security" (Hollenbeck, 1993a, p. 1). However, workers often do not participate and businesses often have a very low occurrence of workplace literacy programs regardless of the evidence of need and economic payoffs (Hollenbeck, 1993a)

Although businesses realize the importance of a literate workforce, there is a paucity of workplace education programs (Hollenbeck, 1993), broadly defined as programs that provide training, separate from regular job duties, in academics, problem solving, interpersonal, and other skills that enhance job performance or personal development. These programs can be offered on or off the work site, or a combination of both (Hollenbeck, 1993). It is estimated that only about six to eight percent of nonmanufacturing firms have programs and eight to twelve percent of manufacturing firms offer workplace education programs (Bassi, 1992, in Hollenbeck, 1993a). Fewer than five percent of the small businesses offer any type of workplace education program (Hollenbeck, 1993a).

Although the concern regarding the low-literacy skills of the workforce appears compelling, a literature search reveals there is little research on nonparticipation in adult education programs of low-skilled, low-literate working adults. Particularly, the interest in the participation habits of males who work in menial, highly physical, and "dirty" jobs, appears to be little to none. These low-paying, low-skilled manufacturing jobs, traditionally held by men, have been predicted to grow at a rate of 0.2% between 1988 and 2000. All other occupations are expected to grow at an average rate of 11.9% (Metropolitan Milwaukee Association of Commerce, 1994). In addition, these jobs are rapidly being redefined to include more flexible rather than routine job duties, requiring a more highly educated worker (Berryman, 1994). Moreover, these high-paying, low-skilled, and highly accessible jobs workers have traditionally enjoyed are now rapidly evolving into low-paying and less accessible jobs. Hence, the purpose of this research was to gain a fuller understanding of reasons low-skilled workers fail to participate in organized adult education programs by examining the viewpoints within the context of the life-world's of a multi-racial group of male workers in one small company in the Midwest.

Research Questions

This research examined the non-participation behavior of thirteen blue-collar male workers with low-literacy skills. All participants were employed with a small company that repairs railroad braking systems in a large Midwestern city. Several research questions were addressed:

a. In what ways did the subjects' past, present, and future expectations influence the life choices they have made about work and school?
b. How did the subjects make sense of their schooling experiences within the context of their life worlds?
c. How did these experiences help shape their non-participation behavior and motivational orientations toward education.

The Research Methodology

The research design employed an interpretive case study approach to investigate the research questions. The strength of this approach is its ability to illuminate the meanings of phenomenon from the experiences of study participants.

Data Collection Site

The company is located in the central-city of a large Midwestern metropolis, and it has relied on city dwellers for approximately 57% of its 35 employees. Forty-three percent (43%) live in the surrounding suburbs that make up the metropolitan area. Forty-two percent (42%) are African-American/Black, 51% are white, 2% are Hispanic and 2% are Asian. Eighty percent are

male and the remaining 20% are female. The majority of hourly workers make less than $25,000 per year. All employees are 18 years old and older.

Sample Selection

Judgmental sampling, which relies on the experience and discretion of the researcher to select a sample that is believed to be representative of the characteristics of the targeted population of interest, was selected to choose the study respondents (Krathwohl, 1993; and Seidman ,1991). This type of sampling allows the researcher to choose particular subjects that are *presumed* to be typical of certain segments of the population and therefore representative of it" (Krathwohl, 1993, p. 137).

All of the workers were invited to participate in the study provided they met the criteria set to participate. Nineteen workers agreed to participate in the screening process. Each worker was asked questions pertaining to his/her educational background and if he/she was presently participating in any adult education program. Following the questions, each prospective participant was asked to identify words from the *Word Recognition in Isolation Test* (Rakes, Choate, Waller, 1993) designed to test reading levels to eighth grade. The reading level is determined by the last grade level in which the testee is able to identify 75% of the 20 words listed within that grade level.

Of the 19 men and women who agreed to participate in the screening process, 13 men qualified for the study. These 13 men did not recognize, nor were they able to pronounce a minimum of 75% of the words listed as words expected to be familiar at the eighth grade level. Based on self-reports and their inability to identify a minimum of 75% of the test words from the sixth through eighth grade lists, these thirteen men were identified as reading below the level expected of high school students.

Eight of the participants were African-Americans/Blacks, three were Caucasians/Whites, one individual was of Asian and Italian decent, and one was of African-American, White, and American Indian decent. All were between the ages of 22 and 54. Nine (9) were general laborers or welders in the production area of the plant. Four (4) were classified as low-level management staff, in the capacity of supervisor, foreman, or inspector. None were required to have completed high school or to have high school competency to qualify for their positions. All were trained on the job and had worked in some capacity considered as general labor for all of their adult lives.

The educational attainments of these men ranged from those without high diplomas or GEDs to those with schooling beyond high school. Six of the men had not received a high school diploma, four had General Education Development (GEDs), and three had graduated. One participant had received an associate degree. None of the men were presently participating in any organized adult education program. All volunteered to participate and signed a consent form.

Data Collection

The phenomenological interviewing approach chosen combines life-history interviewing and focused, in-depth interviewing (Seidman, 1991) in an attempt to understand how and what meanings people construct around events in their daily lives (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992). The low-skilled worker's life history, family background and orientation toward education and learning, prior schooling experiences, present concerns about education, and future goals for educational attainment career plans were explored. Open-ended questions, were asked to help respondents relate present learning experiences with past learning experiences. A minimum of three face-to-

face interviews were spaced over five weeks. All interviews were audio-taped for verbatim transcription. Respondents were interviewed in a private, comfortable room at the worksite during working hours.

Data Analysis

The data were analyzed via the process suggested by Bogdan & Biklen (1992). Following each interview, the researcher recorded important information on a Contact Summary Form, which assisted with the identification of pertinent facts and identifying the meanings subjects' have of their experiences. Information pertaining to main issues/themes, questions needing further clarification/probing, and questions for the next interview were recorded. Other information, phrases used, or issues expressed, were recorded on a separate sheet for future reference. This process assisted the researcher to establish codes and to identify categories to analyze the data. Once categories began to emerge, the researcher identified patterns and connections that developed into themes.

Findings

Several themes emerged that captured and illuminated the narratives of the subjects. They provide insight into the subjects' perceptions of how education relates to work and subsequent non-participation behavior.

Missing Something--Individuals expressed the importance of not having a father in the home. This feeling of "missing something" i.e., a parent that was lost to them as children due to death, divorce, or separation. This feeling is reflected in comments by Dan that "you get half of what you got," when you only have one parent.

Teacher Insensitivity--Teacher attitudes were perceived to contribute to much of the academic failure experienced by participants and influenced many of them to either avoid school through displays of various adverse behaviors/attitudes, or to eventually dropout. Their perceptions were described vividly and emotionally in terms of the teacher's lack of caring, and their failure to "teach" them "how to learn" in an academic setting. Although all the individuals in the study attended school at least to the eighth grade, each of them experienced difficulty with courses, attending classes, and completing homework assignments. Because they were all "passed on", they learned how to "get by" rather than how to do school work. "I guess I just learned not to LEARN, and just learned to have FUN in school, you know...hang out with the other people that be in the halls and stuff. It was more fun to me...," said Roman. Five of the participants failed at least one grade, and one study participant remained in the first grade for three years.

Tracking and Labeling--The sense of feeling ashamed and embarrassed was replete in the stories of most of the participants. One of them said, "I don't really like to talk about that because, ah, I was really ashamed of that!... People were making fun of me, ... they thought it was something bad for a person to be in the Special C class...slow learning class" (Cliff). Another participant indicated that the fear of humiliation is blocking his decision to return to school. "Me and humiliation don't get along too well!..Yeah! That's the fear I have. (Dan)

Early Responsibilities--The text of most of the respondents' stories reflect the twin experiences of poverty and struggle. Many of them were forced to work at an early age and had

to put aside school work for chores and other obligations to ensure the security and stability of the family. Many of the participants were supporting themselves economically prior to entering high school, thereby, making it difficult for them to mentally focus on learning in school.

Race and Class Discrimination--Most of the study participants grew up in racially segregated neighborhoods and did not have an opportunity to experience people of different racial/ethnical backgrounds prior to entering the workforce. Many of the Black participants grew up in the South during the Jim Crow era, while the other individuals of color were reared in the Midwest. Although they understood that Whites and Blacks lived different lifestyles, they also understood that some ways of doing things were just a part of living. Because "everybody was doing it," it was simply accepted. The White participants were all born and reared in the Midwest, and also had little contact with minority groups until entering the workforce. However, for Blacks, racism seemed to be the most prevalent in the schools via racially segregated schools and being forced to use "hand-me-down" text books (from the White schools).

Simple Aspirations and Hidden Opportunities--As children, the burden of poverty compelled many of these men and their families to be preoccupied with issues of economic survival. There was not the time nor the energy available to devote to something as speculative as education. In most cases, whether they experienced extreme poverty or lived just above it, their primary responsibilities, once having arrived from school, was to complete their chores. Because schooling was not a necessary ingredient for pursing the types of jobs to which they aspired, schoolwork took a *backseat* to the more pressing responsibilities expected of them. Although their parents expressed a desire for their offspring to have a better life than they, their actions seemed contrary.

Replete in the stories of the participants are examples of the limited exposure to career opportunities these men were afforded while growing up. Many never discussed their goals and future aspirations with peers, teachers, counselors, or parents. Neither guidance counselors nor teachers took the time to mention career options in preparing these men for the future. Although they feel that they have vast opportunities, they were not aware of those jobs and careers that exist beyond the blue-collar level.

Education in Relation to Work--For most of the participants, their future participation in education would only come to fruition if the need for money was eliminated. For them, money is the end result of education, not a *means* to an end, but *the* end itself. If the goal of earning money is accomplished, then the importance of the means--education--becomes less important. To most of these men, they will always have a way (or means) to earn money as long as they are willing to work hard and get dirty. For example, most of these men have worked in factory jobs, auto mechanics, carpentry, plumbing, farming, restaurants, painting, and a host of other manual labor positions. Therefore, the relationship between schooling and occupational achievement is not a part of their life-worlds. To make more money requires that they work more hours. The opportunity costs of education means losing money, and the preponderance of them are not willing to make the sacrifice for the uncertainty of financial advancement via an academic program. Convinced that occupational and financial advancement is limited for them, these men regard returning to school as an interference in immediate earning power.

Conclusion

The subjects' narratives tell a collective story of poverty, low academic achievement, early responsibility pressures, and low parental encouragement to attain academic and economic success. Although their experiences varied, as did their race and ethnicity, they ultimately ended up sharing the same socio-economic space, and expressed similar ideas, beliefs, aspirations, and perceptions of opportunities. Each expressed a strong sense of agency or self-efficacy, that served to mediate his limited perceptions of opportunities. They refused to view themselves as "victims" of socioeconomic injustices, but chose to view themselves as "adapters" to their unfortunate circumstances. Therefore, they steadfastly believe that their opportunities for success are as boundless as those persons they view as more privileged, and they have assigned "blame" to themselves for their marginalized opportunities. As long as they have the power to control the boundaries of their opportunities, as defined by them, then they believe they can continue to strive to improve their quality of life without suffering the ravages of "educational practices." Apparently, the educational experiences of youth has carried over into adulthood to influence nonparticipation, i.e., high work achievement in adulthood tends to serve as a replacement for the low-academic achievement experienced as children and youth.

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References will be provided upon request.

Deryl Davis-Harrison, Ph.D., Assistant Dean of Student Services in Education, University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, P.O. Box 413, Milwaukee, WI 53201; e-mail: ddh@soe.uwm.edu

Larry G. Martin, Ph.D., Associate Professor, Department of Administrative Leadership, University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, P.O. Box 413, Milwaukee, WI 53201; e-mail: lmartin@uwm.edu

BOUNDARIES AND BELIEFS AMONG TEACHERS OF ADULTS: A CASE STUDY OF CURRICULAR TRANSFORMATION

John M. Dirkx
Marilyn Amey
Lisa Haston

ABSTRACT

Practitioners and scholars have called for more integrated approaches as a means of achieving more coherence with educational programs for adults. Adopting integrated approaches within many higher education settings, however, challenges deeply held beliefs and institutional structures shaped and sustained by the boundaries of the academic disciplines. This paper reports a study of one group of discipline-based, community college faculty engaged in curricular transformation and discusses key features which characterize their experience of this process.

Driven largely by sweeping social and technological factors which are changing the nature of work, adults are increasingly turning to postsecondary education for occupational development. In the United States, community colleges are rapidly becoming major locations for adult learning, educating and training a "mid-skilled labor force" (Grubb, 1966). Along with an occupational major, most of these programs require students to complete some level of basic academic skills and general education courses. For many adult learners, however, these courses are experienced as fragmented pieces of information or skill, disconnected from each other and the learners' life contexts. In response to the question commonly asked by these adult learners, "Why do I have to do this?" they are commonly told that they will need it for subsequent courses in their program or as part of their job. It is hard for adults to find sense in this response and many leave the community college before completing their goals. Developmental education programs within community colleges represent a specific example of this problem. Usually provided by subject matter specialists, these instructional experiences are designed to equip the "underprepared" adult with the academic skills he or she will need in later college-level work or on the job. But they often have little to do with each other or the learner's future employment contexts, and attrition rates within these courses range as high as 75% in some programs (Grubb, 1996). Many scholars and practitioners suspect the lack of a meaningful, coherent curricular experience may be a significant and fundamental reason why so many adults do not complete their formal educational programs (Beane, 1995; Grubb, 1996).

A coherent curriculum "is one that holds together, that makes sense as a whole; and its parts, whatever they are, are unified and connected by that sense of a whole" (Beane, 1995, p. 3). In a coherent curriculum, we create contexts that connect experiences learners have within that curriculum with its broader purposes. Family and workplace literacy programs are well-known examples of curricular efforts to construct these meaningful connections. Within community colleges, efforts at curriculum integration represent teachers' attempts to bring some coherence to an otherwise fragmented educational experience. In this approach, knowledge and skills are integrated within a theme based on the real-life contexts of the learners. Ideally, in these experiences what is to be learned is drawn from a wide range of sources, without regard to boundaries of disciplines or subject matter (Dirkx & Prenger, 1997). Usually, however, integration efforts consist of two or more disciplines working together within common themes, such as groundwater pollution. Adopting an integrated approach within one's practice requires a paradigmatic shift from a focus on teaching to one on learning. Many community college teachers are by training and career, "disciplinary

knowledge experts." They traditionally rely on curricular structures and instructional models intended to transmit to adults codified bodies of knowledge or skills for which they are perceived to be lacking or deficient (Brody, 1998). Integrated approaches to instruction represent radical departures from what they have come to know as effective teaching practice (Griffith & Conner, 1994; LeCroy & McClenney, 1992). Little is known, however, on how these teachers learn and implement integrated approaches. This paper reports on one group of teachers who are engaged in a process of transforming their curriculum from one grounded in the disciplines to one in which knowledge is seen as deeply integrated with and constructed through the life experiences of their learners (Dirkx & Prenger, 1997). Our goal for this project was to listen closely to the teachers as they moved through this process of learning and struggling with an integrative approach, to understand how they made sense of the belief orientations implicit in the innovation, and how these meaning-making processes were manifest in the teachers' practical knowledge and beliefs.

Methods

This study focused on five developmental education teachers from Riverdale Community College (Pseudonyms are used for the names of the college, teachers, administrators and students). Riverdale, located within an urban setting, enrolls about 12,000 students annually. Approximately 10%-15% of the college's first year class participate in one or more developmental education courses. The teachers, three white men and two white women, are all trained in the disciplines of and with expertise in reading, writing, mathematics, and psychology. All five have been with the college for at least eight to ten years and all of them had several years of teaching prior to their appointment at Riverdale. Another teacher outside this group served to facilitate the project.

On behalf of the teachers, the facilitator requested the senior author to provide technical assistance to help the developmental education program improve its student retention rate, using a more integrated, theme-based approach to instruction. After an initial, half-day workshop, which introduced the idea of integrated curriculum, the teachers decided to implement a pilot project aimed at evaluating a more integrated, theme-based approach to their teaching (Dirkx & Prenger, 1997). They agreed to work with university-based researchers who would participate as co-learners in the project. A major assumption, held and made explicit by the university-based researchers, was the teachers would evolve and construct their own model of integrated curriculum and what it means within their particular context.

A qualitative case study method was used, informed by methodological assumptions and strategies of action research, ethnography, and phenomenology. Data were derived from weekly or semi-weekly teacher meetings over a year, documents distributed and discussed in these meetings, semi-structured, in-depth interviews with and written synopses from each near the end of the first semester. Interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim and all data were subjected to analytic procedures commonly accepted for use in case study methodology.

Findings

The data collected over the last year suggest numerous findings that are of salience to understanding the process of curricular and institutional transformation. In our discussion, we will focus on three broad features which characterized the teachers' perspective on the integration process: a) the centrality of the learner to the teachers' thinking and processes, b) the emergence of the promise of community and its threats; and c) new curricular connections among their respective disciplines.

Centrality of the learners. Within the work of this project, the teachers demonstrated a richly textured knowledge of their students and their life contexts. Much of our time together in meetings was given over to sharing knowledge of and about one another's students, both in terms of their academic performances as well as their lives outside of the College. Fueled by a sense of compassion and care for their students, the process provided the teachers with an opportunity to strengthen and share understandings of their students. At the core of this understanding is an overall perception of their students as "being in need." This deficit perspective is reflected in the teachers' sense of the students' academic achievement as well as their social and cultural contexts. They perceive many of their students as academically "underprepared" and "at risk." The teachers seem painfully aware of the attrition rates within their developmental classes, often reaching as high as 50% or more. In making sense of their current academic struggles, the teachers repeatedly pointed to the students' past academic experiences, suggesting they were working against a mindset among the students which predisposed them to failure within the present context. Many of their students did not do well in high school or dropped out entirely. They lack many of the basic skills taken for granted among first year college students. For example, in one meeting, Charles described one of his students as being unable to add and subtract simple, single-digit numbers. Although not well documented by objective data, the teachers suspect that there is a high level of learning disabilities among the developmental education students with whom they work. They clearly see a need for their students to master basic knowledge within their discipline in order to succeed later in their college experience. They characterize the students as demonstrating a wide range of motivations for being in their classes, from some sincerely wanting something better for themselves and their families to others who reflected largely external forces for their presence, such as a desire to play sports, or the need to comply with certain legal conditions imposed on them by the courts or social service agencies.

In addition to these perceptions of academic deficiency, the teachers perceive the students' lives beyond the educational context as being in need as well. Many aspects of their lives seem to work against or make it difficult for the students to continue or focus on studying. For the most part, these factors represent a constant source of frustration for the teachers because they have so little control or influence over them. For instance, the teachers described persistent and unrelenting economic difficulties which their students often face, and family issues, such as an unsupportive and sometimes even hostile spouse or life partner. These factors undermine or at least severely complicate the students' educational quests. They also contribute to the students' sense of low self-esteem and lack confidence in themselves as learners. According to the teachers, the students have a strong need to become self-directed, independent, self-motivated, and to take control of their lives. They talked about the students' need to develop to learn to adapt, and to generally improve their lives The teachers see their relationship with the students and the instructional experience as having a significant influence on how the students felt about themselves but they recognize there are many aspects of their lives contributing to this sense of self.

Sharing information like what has been mentioned above about their students seems to be at the core of what an integrated approach to teaching came to mean for these teachers and much time in our weekly meetings was devoted to this task. But it was also evident that this knowledge of the learners' lives did not find itself directly into the curriculum. The specific knowledge and skills represented by each teacher's discipline were not integrated in the learners' life contexts. Rather, these contexts tended to be viewed as mostly impeding but occasionally facilitating the acquisition of this discipline-based knowledge and skill, and the strategies used to achieve this goal.

An emerging sense of community. The opportunity to talk about one's teaching with colleagues represents another characteristic of the meaning that these teachers attribute to an

integrated approach. Years of experience working alone within their disciplines have left these teachers skeptical of the possibility of meaningful change within a broader, programmatic or institutional context. They entered the collaborative work hopeful yet cautious of the whole project, of the university folks, and of one another. An uncertain political climate within the larger organization contributed to an initial, eggshell-like quality within the group. Over the course of he project, a sense of community emerged only gradually and partially but its manifestation seems clear. The teachers' interest in developing an integrated approach within their teaching was fueled by a sense that there is "no program" in developmental education at Riverdale. Rather, it is best understood as a "set of independent course offered by four separate departments." During our meetings and in the interviews, the teachers repeatedly complained about the lack of communication among developmental faculty, little awareness of what each other is teaching or how, and no real sense of how their students are doing in other developmental courses. They often feel isolated from one another and from the College as a whole. Considerable time was spent in our meetings talking about problems "created" by counseling personnel, some administrators, and others in the institution who did not have a good understanding of what they were attempting to do in developmental education or the academic needs of their students.

A kind of "we versus they" mentality gradually began to characterize these meetings, driven no doubt by a contentious political struggle surrounding negotiation of the teachers' contracts, as well as the institutional history carried by the teachers. Charles communicates this sense of alienation reflected among this group of teachers. "Eight people decided to reorganize this college and the reorganization was really...to keep control in a central location. That kind of dumped off a lot of work, different initiatives for actually having shared decision-making, we don't have any of that going on." Yet, he talked enthusiastically about curriculum work that various teachers within his department were pursuing to improve the ways in which their subject was taught to students.

Early in this curricular process the teachers saw, in an "integrated approach," the possibility for developing a real sense of community not only among the students but among the program faculty as well. In the words of one teacher, this approach promised to "develop a community of learners among our students, providing them with a strong sense of belonging and increase in confidence through support of instructors and classmates." Another teacher said simply, "To establish community among students taking all four classes." Several weeks into the fall semester, the teachers commented in our meetings of the sense of community that seemed to be developing among the students in the "block" experience. This sense of community was perceived as critical to developing effective learning experiences for the students. It allowed the instructors within the separate courses to integrate common themes which provided the students with connection and coherence from class to class.

The teachers also saw the integrated approach as a means for furthering community among themselves. One teacher described it as bringing "together the different disciplines in '[developmental education] to create a more meaningful experience for the learners." In reflecting on the process at the end of the fall semester, the teachers pointed out that the "project has fostered dialogue among some of the instructors working with students at risk" and provided for an exchange of information among the instructors "regarding particular students." In fact, talking about their students was one of the main ways in which the teachers used the time in our weekly meetings, discussing students' progress, problems they were having in and out of the classroom, and their whereabouts, or if they had not been in class for a while. They talked about the integrated instructional process as a "vehicle for conversation among the four disciplines," creating some "cohesiveness" for those working in developmental education.

New curricular connections. The teachers perceive no formal leadership within developmental education, "a headless entity." Learning within the various developmental courses is often experienced by students as a "series of disjointed, unconnected activities. Early in the process, the teachers talked about the notion of a "theme" as a "link between the disciplines," providing continuity and structure across otherwise unrelated areas. These themes serve to connect these "primary content areas" which then allow the students to use the themes to further explore the content in "terms of their own personal experiences and needs." The themes, identified earlier by the teachers in the developmental phase of the project, arose largely from the set of themes one of the teachers was already using. These themes reflected topcial issues used in her course, around which she structured the course content, and not really a codification of learner life experiences. The other four teachers agreed that these themes seemed reasonable for use in their classes as well, based on their understandings of their students. These themes then became what the teachers perceived as common ground across the four separate courses.

The teachers, however, perceive the themes to be secondary to the content of their respective disciplines. In the words of one teacher, "Instructors are attempting to use common themes to reach their objectives for their respective classes." Their task in curriculum development is to "locate content or problems within the present curriculum that have relevance to the themes." In our weekly meetings, teachers sometimes asked one another how they might address the themes within their respective classes or how they might incorporate math into the psychology class, reading into the math class, or writing into the reading class. The themes serve as a point of departure for this discussion, which at times does not really connect with or reflect any particular theme. These data suggest that integration means for the teachers an opportunity to teach another skill within one's own respective discipline. Themes provide loosely defined contexts for identifying these opportunities.

Discussion and Conclusion

It is difficult here to do justice to the complexity of issues that emerged within this curricular process. We will discuss a few. Because they work as developmental educators, these teachers already are adapting and using instructional strategies to better support student achievement formatively in and out of the classroom (Amey, forthcoming). They clearly see themselves more than summative evaluators who assign term grades. This orientation and commitment is at the heart of developmental education and at the core of these teachers' beliefs. In many settings of higher education, this view in itself might represent a dramatic transformation. But, for these teachers, this notion is embedded within a particular view of what an integrated curriculum means. The teachers in this study are guided by a set of belief structures consistent with a multi-disciplinary perspective to curriculum integration (Drake, 1993). In this perspective, one views the curriculum through the lens of particular disciplines or subjects (e.g. math), but content from other areas (e.g. writing) may be used to enhance relevance. In this model, themes are applied to specific subject areas to illustrate or expand the meaning of the concepts embedded in the discipline. This perspective represents the least "revolutionary" view of possible approaches to curriculum integration, in the sense that it remains subject-centered and preserves the integrity of the discipline boundaries. The model provides teachers with a sense of common ground and provides a context through which to connect as colleagues, despite disciplinary boundaries. Prior to this project, these teachers rarely consulted with each other about what or how they were teaching, who their students were, or what they were like. The process created a context in which they began to share this information and, as they did, questions of structure and broader purposes emerged. Integration came to mean sharing information about students, pointing out connections among the disciplines, and how they may act on them.

Not only did a different way of looking at and thinking about one's curriculum begin to emerge, but the process created opportunities for an emerging sense of community among the teachers and learners. The notion of learning communities has been linked with curriculum integration and with transformation of the community college into the "learning college" (O'Banion, 1997). Thus, there is some indication among the teachers' processes of these transformative dynamics. A word of caution, however, is in order. Specialization, heterogeneity, and increased diversity within the system can lead to fragmentation, eroding what sense of community among faculty there may be (Tierney & Bensimon, 1996). It remains to be seen whether a multi-disciplinary perspective can sustain a broader sense of community, or whether, as does other cross-disciplinary instructional activity, this model contributes to fragmentation and a fundamental erosion of community. The increasingly volatile and politically charged organizational climate in which this process took place, which engendered a growing sense of "we versus they" among the teachers, would seem to warrant such a cautious interpretation of what this sense of emerging community means.

Curriculum integration involves fundamental transformation of what teachers believe about knowing and radical change in institutional roles and structures. A discipline's boundaries provide a kind of safety that makes it difficult for teachers to completely let go of accustomed ways of knowing. To paraphrase Christopher Lasch (1977), the discipline provides a kind of epistemological haven in a heartless world of the broader organization. Teachers and institutions must struggle with the question, what is most worth knowing?

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John M. Dirkx, Higher, Adult & Lifelong Education, 408 Erickson Hall, East Lansing, MI, 48824-1034. dirkx@pilot.msu.edu

FOSTERING ADULT LEARNER SUCCESS IN THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE EXPERIENCE: THE ROLE OF MANDATED CURRICULAR POLICY

John M. Dirkx
Gloria Kielbaso
Ann Allen
Yeon Min

ABSTRACT

Adults comprise an increasing proportion of students enrolled in community colleges. Developmental programs serve a critical function in helping many of these adult learners develop academic skills necessary to succeed in college-level coursework. Yet, attrition in many of these programs is very high. This paper reports a case study aimed at developing a better understanding of the attrition problem in a community college developmental program. The results suggest that the institution's policies regarding the developmental curriculum may be inadvertently contributing to attrition within this program and indicate a need to re-visit the role and function of mandated experiences for adult learners within higher education..

Sue[2] is a 35 year-old woman recently laid off from her fifth job in the last three years. Single with two children under the age of 10, Sue's frustration has led her to the doors of LeGrange Community College (LGCC). It has been more than 17 years since she was in any kind of formal educational setting. She has enrolled, however, in LGCC's nursing program in the hope that acquiring additional skill might provide her and her family with a more stable and secure future. But this experience has re-awakened distinctly unpleasant and even painful memories and images of school and she is very nervous about beginning her postsecondary education. Although anxious about tests, Sue took the battery of assessments provided by the college. Discouraged with her low scores, she was not thrilled with the counselor's suggestion that she enroll in appropriate developmental courses. Sue was eager to start college work and LGCC has no official policy requiring her to complete developmental studies, so she enrolled in an introductory-level nursing course and a required general education course, as well as a developmental writing course. At first, the coursework did not seem so bad. Her writing class was individualized and she worked at her own pace, doing as much or as little as she was able each week. As her other courses became more demanding and the workload intensified, however, she found herself increasingly letting her writing class slide. Now with three weeks left in the semester, she has withdrawn from developmental writing and is desperately struggling to pass her other two courses. She fears the worst and sees her hopes and dreams slipping away with each day.

Statement of the Problem

Sue's decision to return to school reflects a trend over the last quarter century taking place in institutions of higher education worldwide. During this time, the proportion of adult students in these institutions (i.e., those who are 22 years of age or older at the time of their enrollment) has equaled the proportion of traditional-aged students (Richardson & King, 1998). In many institutions, the proportion of adult students exceeds their traditional-aged counterparts. Driven in part by

[2] Sue is a fictional character who represents a composite of experiences identified by participants in this study. LeGrange is a pseudonym for the actual community college reported in this study.

demographic, economic, and technological shifts (Merriam & Caffarella, 1991), many of these adults are seeking to enhance or expand their occupational opportunities. Within the United States, this trend is profoundly evident among community colleges or proprietary schools (Grubb, 1996), where faculty and administrators increasingly regard their institutions as settings for adult education. Like Sue, however, a significant proportion of these adult learners have not attended formal education for many years. They feel anxious about their competencies in basic skills and their ability to effectively study within a college context.

LeGrange, like many community colleges throughout the United States maintains an open-door policy towards admission. As a result, it admits significant numbers of adults who are "underprepared" to successfully participate in college-level classes. To address the needs of this group of learners, community colleges now offer some form of developmental education (McMillan & Lanning, 1997). Of the approximately 1200 students who enroll annually at LGCC, about 300-400 will be enrolled in at least one developmental education (DE) class, reflecting a proportion fairly typical of other community colleges across the United States. Studies suggest that successful completion of these programs increases the likelihood that students will experience academic success in subsequent college-level coursework and ultimately complete certificate or degree programs (Campbell & Blakey, 1996; Wall, 1996). Attrition rates in these courses, however, are often at least 50% and range as high as 70% in some institutions (Grubb, 1996). Changes in instructional, curricular or support programs, however, may positively influence student performance and retention rates, depending on the nature of the problem (Boylan, Bliss, & Bonham, 1997). Concerned with its own attrition rate in DE, LGCC asked for help in developing a better understanding of what was contributing to the problem and what could be done about it. This paper explores the empirical and ethical consequences of certain curricular policies at LGCC related to enrollment and completion of DE courses.

Methods

A case study approach was used to develop an indepth understanding of the DE program at LGCC, a rural institution located in the upper mid-west, with an annual total student population of about 1100. The DE program at LGCC consists of pre-college level coursework in mathematics, reading, writing, and a study skills course. Academic areas are taught through an individualized, self-paced laboratory setting, equipped with computer-assisted instruction and other appropriate resources. In addition, two DE math courses and the study skills course are offered through a more traditional, classroom format. The DE staff consists of four teachers, two of which are full-time and one part-time, and one classroom teacher who also has college level responsibilities. DE students also receive services from three counselors and 30 tutors and note-takers. Students with documented learning disabilities receive special support services, such as note-takers and books on tape.

A completing student was defined as one who had achieved a satisfactory grade in the DE course for which he or she was enrolled. A noncompleting student was defined as one who withdrew from the course prior to completing its requirements or received an unsatisfactory grade. Relying on a mixed method design, quantitative data on potentially relevant variables were collected from institutional databases. Files were reviewed from approximately 1397 students enrolled in one or more DE courses within the last five years. Nineteen students, consisting of those who had completed developmental courses, those who were currently enrolled in one or more DE classes, and those who had not completed a DE class for which they were enrolled within the last two years, were interviewed. A self-administered survey was mailed to 14 noncompleting students not responding to telephone inquires. Five DE teachers, two counselors, and three college administrators were also

interviewed. Program documents were collected and observations were conducted of the lab and classroom settings. All but two interviews were audio-tape recorded and transcribed verbatim. Quantitative data were subjected to descriptive and inferential statistical analyses. Qualitative data were analyzed using commonly accepted strategies for case study methodology.

Findings

The findings presented and discussed here are based on observed patterns of student completion and noncompletion, and student and staff perceptions of the DE experience that relate to these patterns. We first present a general profile of the student participants and then examine potential differences among completers and noncompleters and what factors might be contributing to these different patterns of persistence. We then provide observations of general policies and practices at LGCC as they relate to completion and noncompletion in DE.

Overall Student Profile. Most of the DE students at LGCC are from the immediate local area (64%), white (94%), have been out of school for many years, and have worked in one or more jobs since leaving high school. At least 50% of them are 30 years or more of age and relatively few are more traditional-aged college students. The students enrolled in DE are predominantly women (74%), and many of them are married with children or single mothers. Virtually all the students interviewed cited work-related reasons for returning to school. Some had been laid off and were trying to find a new area in which to work, while others were dissatisfied with their current occupational situations and were looking to enhance or change their options. Business and nursing are two majors most frequently represented by DE students (23% and 9%, respectively), with the remainder distributed across a range of other majors.

For the most part, students did not perceive their prior educational experiences (primarily high school) favorably. They were highly dissatisfied with what life was like for them during these years and some were obviously uncomfortable recalling high school experiences during the interview. They perceived themselves to have relatively little control over what or how they learned and for them. They viewed education as largely irrelevant to their lives. More than half described themselves as having low self-esteem or self-confidence at the start of their DE coursework. A number of the individuals with whom we spoke had left high school before completing their requirements, citing such reasons as getting pregnant, hanging around with the wrong crowd, skipping a lot, and moving. Some had children and struggled with a number of odd jobs before deciding to continue their formal education These students found their experience at LGCC, however, to be in sharp contrast to these earlier experiences and many seemed pleasantly surprised by the contrast. More than three out of every four DE students were enrolled in the lab-based classes, with 16% only in classroom-based courses and 8% in both formats. They said the teachers cared more and they were able to establish closer relationships with them. Students were presented with opportunities at LGCC to learn in different ways, and scheduling of class was more flexible.

Potential differences among completing and noncompleting DE students. The overall rate of completion among this group of students as a whole was 61%. Compared with noncompleters, completers were generally at a higher level of educational achievement at the time of enrollment, as reflected in their assessment scores in the reading, writing, and math. Women had higher completion rates than men (64% versus 53%) and older students completed more frequently than younger students (67% versus 56%). In talking about their reasons for enrolling at LGCC and their goals for being there, the older students reflected a deeper sense of commitment to continuing their education than those recently out of high school. Students who had returned to LGCC, after having discontinued their education earlier, talked about making a shift from being motivated by external

factors, such as family or parents, to taking more ownership for their own learning. Older students who stayed with the program indicated that younger students tended to miss more classes. They felt that, for the younger students, being in college did not mean as much to them because they had not yet seen the "other side." The older students reported their peers to be less likely to withdraw than their younger counterparts because they see it as their "last chance" for a decent job and an improved lifestyle. Students who had discontinued their DE studies at LGCC indicated various personal reasons for their decisions, including personal illness, family concerns, and financial considerations. One student left to care for her mother and another suffered an illness which kept her from coming to class. Both of these students said they wanted to return to complete the courses they had discontinued.

Differences between completers and noncompleters were also observed related to curricular and programmatic factors. Nursing majors had the highest rate of completion (70%), followed by business (62%), and other majors (59%). Completion rates for students enrolled in the two classroom-based math courses were 10% to 25% higher than for students enrolled in the lab-based courses. Lab students completing their coursework logged almost twice as many hours within the lab as those who did not. A total of 121 students during the study period re-enrolled one or more times in developmental courses, indicating a desire to complete courses previously attempted but not satisfactorily completed. Math courses constituted 79% of this enrollment, followed by courses in reading and writing (11% each). Student who were dually enrolled talked about difficulties in keeping up with both developmental course and their regular college classes. Because they perceived the developmental classes to be more self-directed, students would sometimes let coursework in these classes slide so they could spend more time with college-level courses. This decision often resulted in them falling behind and eventually needing to withdraw from or not satisfactorily completing the DE course. Several students expressed to us the wish that they had completed their DE coursework before taking on college-level classes.

Policies Related to DE. As an organization, LGCC is characterized by a philosophical approach to governance which also seems reflected in its overall approach to DE. Decision-making is diffused throughout the organization rather than centralized within a few offices or administrators. In a similar way, faculty relegate authority to students for matters of significance to them. Few policies stipulate requirements regarding DE, especially in the areas of orientation, assessment, dual enrollment, and financial aid. Students are encouraged but not required to participate in orientation and only about 30% of new students do so. This results in many students missing valuable information regarding services available and the role of assessment tests in their program and, advice on planning their academic programs. Assessment is also encouraged but not mandatory for incoming students demonstrating possibly low educational achievement levels (low high school grade point averages, an absence of ACT or SAT scores, or a lack of a high school diploma). College administrators estimate that as many as 60% of first year students would significantly benefit from DE coursework, yet far less than this number even take the assessment test. Many students who could benefit from such assessment procedures choose not to do so, because of fear and anxiety surrounding the testing procedure.

Even if test scores indicate a need for DE coursework in one or more areas, many students choose not to enroll in these courses. Because our study focused only on DE students, the exact number of students who do postpone DE enrollment is not known. Many students who sign up for DE courses also concurrently enroll in one or more college-level courses, a trend over which staff expressed concern and suggested a need for additional policy guidelines. On the other hand, data from teachers, counselors, and students suggest that over-reliance on timed assessment tests may not

accurately reflect a student's ability within any given area. Many students are anxious about the tests and their performance under-estimates their actual ability. Literal interpretation of the test scores, however, can result in misplacement within one or more DE courses, effecting a students willingness or desire to complete the course. Other testing procedures are available, such as the Compass, but the college is not equipped to systematically use these other tools.

Discussion

The findings presented here suggest that noncompletion in the DE program at LGCC is multi-faceted, probably involving a complex interaction of dispositional, situational, and institutional variables (Merriam & Cafarella, 1991). Reasons students give for not completing DE classes are similar to findings for programs in higher education (Tinto, 1993) and in adult literacy education (Quigley, 1997). The findings suggest, however, that institutional policies which allow for considerable student choice in planning and implementing their courses may be resulting in student decisions that adversely affect their ability to complete both DE and college-level coursework. Student decisions to not continue in developmental courses often reflect the lower priority they place on completing the DE course. They would rather invest their limited resources on courses more central to their major. This decision-making, while perhaps helping in the short term, becomes a prescription for failure later on, as skill levels required escalates.

Some institutions have implemented policies that require orientation and assessment for students with certain academic characteristics, and have made completion of DE coursework a prerequisite for college-level classes. These mandatory policies, however, are not consistent with the philosophy of LGCC or with principles of adult learning. This study's findings raise the age-old question of the place of mandates or requirements in the education of adults (Brockett, 1992; LeGrand, 1992).

If LGCC continues to abide by its overarching values and give students choice, it is likely that current attrition rates will continue. On the other hand, they could acknowledge studies suggesting the efficacy of mandated policies and require orientation, assessment and developmental education prior to completion of college course work. Under what conditions, if any, is it ethical and justifiable to mandate certain experiences for adults to help contribute to their overall success? An alternative to this unattractive scenario is to re-conceptualize epistemological foundations of DE courses. If they were experienced by students as less fragmented and less decontextualized from their life experiences, they may be more motivated to stay with and complete these courses. DE should be integrated more fully within the occupational or academic programs in which these students are enrolling. For example, study skills need not be a course in itself but should be taught across the curriculum. Similar approaches could be taken with reading and writing. Integrated approaches to teaching math are also available, especially through computer-assisted instruction.

Thus, it is not necessary for LGCC to be forced to choose between an ethical and moral position, on the one hand, and a technically effective and expedient solution on the other. Technically effective resolutions are not always the most sound morally. A more integrated approach (Dirkx & Prenger, 1997), in which learners experience what it is they are learning in the context of broader purposes and values, offers a way through this difficult either-or situation.

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John M. Dirkx, Higher, Adult & Lifelong Education, 408 Erickson Hall, East Lansing, MI, 48824-1034. dirkx@pilot.msu.edu

THE COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT OF ADULT UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS

Sarah Jane Fishback
Cheryl J. Polson

ABSTRACT

This examination of cognitive development in adult undergraduate students contains both quantitative and qualitative elements. The primary purpose of the quantitative portion was to examine the influence of age, gender, enrollment status and academic discipline on cognitive development as defined by Perry (1970). The qualitative research's primary purpose was to examine ways of knowing as defined by Belenky et.al. (1986) and to identify themes that emerged from the qualitative data.

Introduction

Kegan in his book *In Over Our Heads* sounded a caution for adults headed into the next century. He asserted that the "information highway" threatened to overwhelm and exhaust us with information unless we asserted authority over this "information." This authority came, he claimed, from a qualitative change in the complexity of our minds. Higher education has traditionally viewed its mission as one of facilitating intellectual complexity, in particular, cognitive complexity. Researchers have extensively examined the cognitive development of college students and the conditions that are critical in promoting this development but these studies have been conducted generally with traditional college students aged eighteen to twenty-two years old (Astin, 1993; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991).

As the twentieth century closes, vast numbers of adults have returned to higher education to stretch their minds, to cope with change in their personal lives, and to facilitate career advancement or career change. These adult learners bring with them vastly different life circumstances and experiences than those of the so-called "traditional" age student. Few studies have been conducted to examine such questions as: Do the cognitive development theories developed from studies of traditional age students apply to adult learners? Are the conditions which foster increased development in the traditional age population (i.e. involvement in campus life) relevant to adult learners? Do gender related learning differences discovered in the traditional age population also exist among adult learners?

This study examines the impact of higher education on the intellectual cognitive development (hereafter referred to simply as cognitive development) of adult learners. Attention is first turned to seminal cognitive developmental theories that have influenced and informed how higher education views the developmental process.

Theoretical Framework

Perry's (1970) landmark study of cognitive development hypothesized that underlying assumptions about the nature of knowledge and the certainty of knowledge made a difference in the reasoning of college students. His theory of cognitive development proposed nine hierarchical structures of thought that can be grouped into three distinct ways of thinking (dualism, relativism, and commitment).

In Perry's (1970) longitudinal research, male college students were found to shift from dualistic assumptions (knowledge is certain and known to experts) to relativistic assumptions (knowledge is uncertain and must be viewed in a particular context). Students progressed by using

objective, rational methods for evaluating knowledge claims. Perry (1970) viewed development as change that is systematic, successive and adaptive and involved a move toward greater maturity and complexity in thought.

Other researchers have suggested a relational dimension to cognitive development (Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, & Tarule, 1986; Gilligan, 1982)in which care for and connection to others influences how the learner functions cognitively. Mary Belenky et al. (1986) felt that Perry's (1970) work may be conceptually biased due to the absence of women in his sample. They interviewed women about themselves as learners and how they perceived learning and learning environments. They derived five epistemological perspectives which paralleled Perry's scheme but included some important differences.

The fourth position, procedural knowledge, contained a way of knowing that had not been identified by Perry and appeared to be gender related. This way of knowing was labeled as "connected knowing." Connected knowing focuses on understanding others' perspectives and suspending judgment as they listen to others. This contrasts with separate knowing which focuses on judging the merits of others' arguments by using the tools of analysis and critical thinking.

Currently theorists including Belenky et al. (1986) advocate a more integrated view of cognitive development that combines both rational and relational ways of knowing (Baxter Magolda, 1992; Goldberger et al. 1996). Baxter Magolda's (1992) study investigated male and female undergraduate perceptions of the nature of knowledge and the role of gender in their changing patterns of reasoning. Her work suggested that there are more similarities than differences between men and women, although she did find some gender-related patterns in her four schemes. Baxter Magolda (1995) found that past college gender-related patterns tended to become integrated due to the challenges faced in work or in advanced educational, and personal environments. Such challenges forced individuals to become more adept at using both male and female gender-related patterns .

In summary, cognitive development research is inconsistent about whether men and women differ as thinkers. Because such research has generally focused on traditional age students, how cognitive development theory applies to adult undergraduates is unclear. In addition, previous research has not examined the impact of a large array of variables that could affect undergraduate cognitive development and ways of knowing, including: academic discipline, fulltime/parttime enrollment status, age, and learning style.

Methodology

Triangulated research was employed to examine gender and age differences in adult undergraduate students (Marshall & Rossman, 1995; Stage & Russell, 1992). A sequential triangulation format was used; results of the first quantitative phase guided the planning and conduct of the following qualitative stage.

Procedures

The Learning Environment Preference Inventory (LEP) (Moore, 1987) was mailed to a randomly selected sample which consisted of 352 junior and senior adult undergraduates at two midwestern universities. This instrument was designed to determine the position of an individual's cognitive development based on Perry's (1970) scheme. The LEP produces a score, the Cognitive Complexity Index (CCI), (200-500) which corresponds to Perry Positions (Moore, 1988). Selection of sample size was calculated to ensure that there would be sufficient subjects in each classification cell for purposes of analysis. The number of student required was 176 at each institution. The standard deviation used

in calculating the sample size was 35.4. This was the standard deviation for non-traditional undergraduates as reported by Moore (1988).

The instrument was used; 1) to study the relationship between cognitive complexity as measured by the LEP and age, gender, academic discipline, fulltime/parttime status; and 2) to identify students functioning at Positions Three and Four on Perry's (1970) scheme, such students were identified as possible candidates for the qualitative research. Because Position Three and Four appear to parallel Belenky et al.'s (1986) procedural knowing [separate and connected] candidates chosen from this pool were expected to be separate or connected learners.

The original mailing of the instrument included a letter soliciting volunteers willing to be interviewed. From the 126 who volunteered, twenty students scoring at Positions Three and Four on the LEP were purposefully selected. Selection was based on age, gender, academic discipline, enrollment status and institution in order to ensure representation in each category. Individuals in the selected sample were interviewed in depth to determine if they were separate, connected, or constructed knowers.

The qualitative portion of this research was conducted using case study analysis and the constant comparative method. During the first phase of qualitative data analysis a detailed case analysis was conducted to determine if participants were separate, connected or constructed knowers. Each transcript was read several times by the researcher, noting descriptors as separate, connected, or constructed and an initial determination was made of knowing orientation. Transcripts were reread to ensure the rating was consistent with the voice of the participant. Transcripts were rated identically by a second rater.

In the constant comparative method, data are analyzed as they emerge from each interview, and new themes are incorporated into subsequent interviews. Initial questions were open-ended to allow subjects to develop themes that were relevant to their particular experience. After each interview, field notes were written. As themes emerged over the course of the interviews, focused questions were used to validate the themes. All transcripts were read and coded with words or sentences representing emerging themes. The codes were then sorted into categories representing one idea. Categories were adjusted until they fit together in a meaningful way with clear distinction between categories (Patton, 1990).

Validity was addressed by using triangulation (the LEP and interviews) and member checks in which participants were asked to comment on the accuracy of interview summaries provided by the researcher. Inter rater reliability was conducted with a second researcher coding transcribed interviews.

Participants

Participants included 210 adult undergraduate students (students 25 years or older), 111 women and 99 men, randomly selected from the adult population of juniors and seniors at two large Midwestern universities -- one a predominantly traditional age population and the other a predominantly adult undergraduate population. Respondents ranged in age from 25 years to 60 years; 135 were fulltime students (12 hrs or more) and 71 were parttime students (under 12 hrs). Of those participating, 119 were enrolled in hard disciplines (Mathematics, Chemistry, and Architecture) and 91 were enrolled in soft disciplines (English, History, and Education) (Biglan, 1973).

Quantitative Findings

A factorial design using gender, type of academic discipline, and enrollment status was employed to examine differences on the CCI. Age was treated as a covariate, but was not significantly ($p=0.2981$) related to the CCI and was therefore removed from the model. The analysis of variance revealed no

significant interactions among gender, parttime/fulltime status, and hard/soft academic discipline. Main effects - - gender ($p=0.5788$), academic discipline ($p=0.7183$), and enrollment status ($p=0.5489$) - - were also not significant.

Therefore, the results of the quantitative portion of this study revealed no significant relationships between the cognitive complexity of adult undergraduate students, as measured by the CCI and age, gender, enrollment status or type of academic discipline.

Qualitative Results

The qualitative portion of this research examined the cognitive development of selected adult learners. One purpose was to determine if gender was related to mode of knowing (separate, connected or constructed). Then, by using the constant comparative method of analysis, we sought to identify themes that described cognitive development.

Case study analysis revealed that all twenty subjects displayed components of separate, connected, and constructed themes; nonetheless, each had a dominant orientation. Males and females were divided evenly in each category, with four males and four females rated as "separate", five males and five females rated as "connected", and one male and one female "constructed". According to Belenky et.al. (1986) constructed knowers combine characteristics of separate and connected knowers in a distinct and more cognitively complex way of knowing. There was no apparent relationship between gender and knowing orientation.

Attention was then turned to detecting themes that emerged from the constant comparative method in an effort to provide additional insight into cognitive development. Three themes that emerged which, though frequently overlapping, reinforced and clarified one another: 1) Experience, both personal and that of others, was valued by interviewees and enriched their learning. 2) Experience was transformed into meaning by classroom interaction, involving academic constructs, faculty and classmates. 3) As a result of this interaction, learner's initial beliefs about themselves and knowledge were changed, producing personal and intellectual growth.

Discussion

The results of the quantitative data documented the heterogeneity of adult learners. Although all participants had attended college for at least three years, scores on the CCI of the LEP ranged from 220 to 436, suggesting dramatic differences in cognitive complexity. Moore (1988) and King and Kitchener (1994) confirmed that age does not guarantee cognitive complexity. Making assumptions about cognitive complexity based on age, gender, enrollment status or type of academic discipline is not justified.

The qualitative portion of this research found that at the level of procedural knowledge, selection of a way of knowing was not gender related. Since the realities of adult life require both separate and connected knowing in specific situations, the need to connect both ways of knowing is powerful. Kegan (1994) suggested that we need to draw deeply on both feeling and thinking in order to handle the demands of modern life.

Emergent themes highlighted the role of experience in the development of cognitive complexity. Because experience is age - related, this finding is especially important. The value of experience in the educational process has been suggested by a number of authorities (e.g., Kuh & Andreas, 1991; Kolb, 1984).

Adult learners come to the classroom with more elaborate meaning structures than their traditional age counterparts. Past experience can be positive as well as negative; it can assist or deter learning.

Respondents described evaluating classroom material on the basis of their past experience, accepting or rejecting it accordingly. Additionally, respondents mentioned "trying out" new learning at home or at work in order to see if it worked in the "real world."

The experience of the real world was valued, as several spoke of the positive impact of incorporating the experience of practitioners in the classroom. Having a "window" into their future work world was considered a valuable way to test knowledge. Respondents especially valued educational experiences that allowed them to be part of the culture they were studying, such as clinical rotations and student teaching.

When academic learning engaged the reality of learner's lives, it created transformation; but when it was presented divorced from the real world, it was ignored or rejected. Classroom interactions were critical in determining how well new knowledge was incorporated by the learner.

The most valued elements in the learning environment were interactions which took place in a supportive environment. These learners came back to school prepared to play "the game of learning"; but it was not a game they could play alone. In order to shed biases in perspective, someone had to challenge those biases.

Learners repeatedly stated that they expected and wanted to be challenged. They described learning as a team effort where the mutual exploration of diverse perspectives invited the learner to a deeper exploration of beliefs.

The centrality of dialogue in learning has been cited by both Mezirow (1990) and Freire (1971) who also observed that, for true dialogue to occur, it must be conducted in an environment of respect and equality. Interviewees confirmed this notion. They wanted to be questioned and challenged to sharpen their critical thinking skills, and in a supportive environment, also wanted to understand the perceptions of others. Many spoke of sharing a sense of community with other learners.

In this learning community, learners progressed rapidly from learners who expected faculty to know all the answers to critical thinkers who created their own answers (King & Kitchener, 1994). Their changing beliefs clashed with past beliefs, and learning. Although uncomfortable, interviewees saw this discomfort as the price of growth. Growth and transformation were the most valued outcomes of the college experience according to those interviewed. Although most had entered college for practical reasons, these learners most often spoke not of increased job skills, but of personal and intellectual growth. Kegan claimed that what college does to promote this growth is to "create a bridging environment between the 'temporary and rented' world of school itself, and preexisting, ongoing, real-life world of the students (p. 294)." The interaction of these two worlds caused changes in roles and affected not only how the learners saw themselves but how others in their life saw them. Therefore, theory supported the view expressed by those interviewed that the possibility of growth increased with age, but is facilitated by an environment that is dialogic, challenging, and supportive.

Learners interviewed did not see themselves as "finished." Rather they saw learning as lifelong. Developmental theories, according to Basseches (1984) attempt to find a fixed universal timetable for changes that provide adults with a sense of security. He claimed a universal theory is unlikely "The most equilibrium that one will find in adulthood will come from a way of thinking which recognizes all theories, all answers to life as provisional awaiting new data, new experiences, new relationship with other people, to be reconstructed in ways that incorporate more. In this way of thinking, the constant epistemic task of life is building better and better understanding" (p. 337). Therefore, no model can possible represent this uniquely personal journey through life.

Conclusions

One of the most significant findings of this research is that adult students are remarkably heterogeneous. Attempting to meet the needs of this diverse, ever changing populations can be daunting. Common themes, however, emerged among those interviewed. Adult students stated that interaction with faculty and fellow students was vital to their learning. They spoke of learning more from others than from books. The college experience was often described in highly emotional language. Anxiety, discomfort, and frustration appeared to be part of the initial experience but as adults settled in many spoke of transformation, new vitality and self respect. Whereas, traditional age students may be "finding themselves", adult students are "re-defining" themselves. The college experience can serve as a catalyst for personal and intellectual growth. Numerous studies have been conducted to identify factors that encourage growth in traditional age students, few have been conducted using adult students. This research indicates that by relating personal experience to academic learning in a supportive, interactive learning community adult learners lives are dramatically changed. Creating this environment should be the goal of higher education.

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Dr. Sarah J. Fishback
1807 Denholm Dr.
Manhattan, Kansas 66503
(785) 539-6023
email: cmf3664@ksu.edu

Dr. Cheryl J. Polson
Kansas State University
College Of Education
Manhattan, Kansas 66506
(785) 532-5535

INTEGRATING THE FUNCTIONS OF TEACHING, RESEARCH, SERVICE AND INCOME GENERATION THROUGH PARTICIPATORY ACTION RESEARCH

Daniel Folkman
Kalyani Rai

ABSTRACT

This paper looks at using Participatory Action Research as a vehicle for integrating the traditional academic functions of teaching, research, service and income generation. We offer two examples from our work as adult educators and community development practitioners. We hope that these examples demonstrate how through service activities that extend over a period of years can lead to possibilities for teaching, research and income generation. The paper concludes with a list of principles that guide our effort to integrate the traditional functions while also bridging the gaps between research and our daily practice.

Introduction

The traditional faculty roles of teaching, research and service frame the practice of adult educators in the academy as they do for other disciplines. In most instances, the academy is viewed as a knowledge industry in which the hiring and promotion of faculty and academic staff is based on a record of teaching, research and service. In practice, most universities emphasize research followed by teaching with service being a distant third. Additionally, university based continuing education departments add income generation to the list of responsibilities with this bottom line being at the top of most priority listings. Recent publications express dissatisfaction with the traditional way in which these functions are typically performed. (Clark, 1997; Fear & Sandmann, 1995 Nelson, 1985).

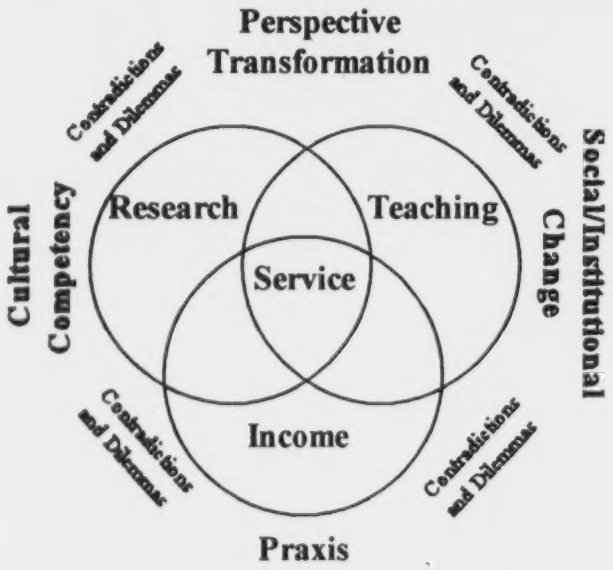
Dilemma

This institutional context creates a dilemma for adult educators who work from within the academy. On the one hand, professional success is dependent upon being recognized as an expert in teaching, research and service, i.e., owning the knowledge that is created through specialized research which is then handed down through classroom teaching and service to the community. On the other hand, the language and espoused practice of adult educators promotes a different kind of expertise that is not always appreciated by other academic colleagues. Teaching is viewed as a transactional process which is characterized by the values of respect, equality, mutuality, shared decision-making, practical outcomes and critical reflection. Extend these values into the research domain, and the enterprise of generating knowledge becomes a form of collaborative inquiry where mutuality and shared decision-making guide the framing of the research question, the design of the research strategy, the dynamics of reflection and analysis, the co-ownership of the knowledge that is created, and the accruing of personal and professional benefits for all participants. Service from this perspective is a vehicle to extend these values into the everyday world of learners, workers, employers, community leaders, public officials and others. Further, all this must be accomplished while generating income to support one's own salary and institution. Clearly, the espoused values and practices of the adult educator make it difficult for the academy based practitioner to build a record of outstanding excellence in teaching, research and service while at the same time being a facilitator of learning and sharing decision-making on what is to be taught and researched, acknowledging joint ownership of the knowledge that is created, striving to ensure that others benefit equally from these collaborative ventures, and generating surplus revenue.

A Participatory Action Research Strategy

We address this dilemma by employing a participatory action research strategy in our educational work. Our approach to adult education and community development is highly eclectic with reference to literature in action research, critical theory, transformative education, multi-cultural education, cooperative learning and feminist pedagogy.(Ross-Gorden, 1991; Chesler, 1991; Brown, 1985; Belenky, et al., 1986; Freire, 1972; Argyri &Schon, 1974) As adult educators and community development practitioners we view the community as a learning field in which the issues and needs that are being addressed through action projects is the curriculum. Within this field, we seek to create partnerships among multiple stakeholder groups. We understand that these partnerships are tenuous because of the many and often conflicting agendas which foster mistrust among the partners and win-lose strategies as well as deep suspicion about our own motives as faculty members and representatives of the university.

Integrating Educational Functions and Action Research



Our intervention is to promote communities of action, inquiry and reflection among these divergent groups. We design action research classes around existing or emerging community projects and offer university credit or continuing education units CEUs for working together while addressing community needs. In this context, the explicit curriculum is aimed at producing tangible outcomes, i.e., addressing identifiable needs through action projects and documenting the results. There is also a hidden curriculum that we make explicit. The goal is to learn to create spaces where people from different backgrounds, cultures, education, social and economic status, and professional training can learn to practice collaboration. Accordingly, we seek to create communities of action and learning that are characterized by trust and respect for all members, win-win strategies, shared control, and joint responsibility and accountability. Participants are challenged to frame their own research questions, implement their own action strategies within a spirit of inquiry, and assume collective ownership of their findings and project outcomes as they reflect on what they have learned about themselves and their environment. We recognize that our vision of collaborative, action learning communities is far from the norm, if they exist at all. We are talking about creating an alternative world that requires deep

transformational learning among individuals as well as structural change within society and its institutions.

Integrating Academic Functions in Daily Practice

The accompanying diagram depicts how we attempt to integrate our approach to the community as curriculum with the academic functions of teaching, research and service while at the same time generating income to sustain our educational projects.

Our point is simple to understand but challenging to implement. As adult educators in the academy, we see community service as our primary function. Our activities in teaching, research and income generation flow from our service. By service we mean being fully engaged in community problem solving activities as one among equals. Within this context, we frame educational programs as integral steps in a larger community development strategy. We employ participatory action research principles and techniques to build trust, respect and mutuality among our collaborators. We create learning communities around projects aimed at identifying community needs, strategic planning, program evaluation, and community based inquiry into issues around race, culture, power, and language. We see our own efforts to create opportunities for learning, research and income generation as a focus of inquiry into our own practice, its efficacy and its consistency with our espoused values as adult educators. We offer two examples from our community development practice.

Example I: Working with the Hmong Community

We draw from our work with Hmong parents to help them reveal their cultural practice of parenting that is rarely recognized, appreciated and validated by the dominant culture. This example illustrates how our research and practices emerge out of our ongoing service in the community. The following chart identifies the time line in which service activities took place. It also identifies the strategic goals that were being accomplished by providing these services and the learning outcomes being produced as part of a curriculum for community change. The author (Rai) began her work by joining the Hmong American Women's Board of Directors.

TIME LINE	STRATEGIC GOAL	COMMUNITY AS CURRICULUM
October, '94: Join Hmong American Women's Organization (HAWA). Serve as the Vice President of HAWA.	Attend monthly meetings. Establish relationship with the members. Assist HAWA with its planning and development of the major initiatives addressing the issues of Hmong women and their families	Learn to listen to the voices of Hmong women and familiarize myself with their ways of thinking and feeling. Learning to use cultural metaphor of "Pajntaub-making" (fine needlework) as a vehicle to provide a space for learning and dialogue. Learning to dialogue around real life issues around pajntaub marketing project.

STRATEGIC EDUCATIONAL ROLE

- Build trust and establish relationships with the Hmong community in Milwaukee
- Recognize and validate their experiences of being and cultural practices
- Develop a culturally appropriate space for dialogue and increase involvement of grassroots Hmong women into the planning process
- Develop plan and funding proposal for implementing the programs
- Provide University CEUS to the members
- Sustain participation of grassroots members
- Secured $57,000 State fund to promote and support involvement of Hmong women in addressing their issues and problems.

TIME LINE
January, '97 - June, '98: Create partnerships with the YWCA Family Center and Hmong Ministry. Implemented a series of Hmong Parenting Action learning Seminars through the CAP funding

STRATEGIC GOAL
Promote collaborative relationships with the Hmong Community Organizations
Develop a culturally appropriate curriculum for Hmong Parenting Practices. Involve Hmong Parents in designing the curriculum.

COMMUNITY AS CURRICULUM
Learn how to create and sustain a learning space to engage a group of Hmong parents who have little or no formal education. Learn how to talk about and validate their own knowledge and cultural practices of being parents so they can contribute to the understanding of parenting in the larger society. Learn to intervene by bridging the difference between professional and grassroots issues.

STRATEGIC EDUCATIONAL ROLE
- Focus on "Pajntaub" as a concept for learning and teaching Parenting
- Recruit grassroots Hmong parents as participants
- Co-author and publish a booklet on Hmong Parenting practices
- Make a group presentation at local and national conferences
- Offer continuing education units to participants
- Secure funding from CAP funds.
- Develop future program initiatives with participants

TIME LINE
July, '98: Develop proposal for Equity Education programs for Hmong females who are dropping out of high schools

STRATEGIC GOAL
Create network of collaborating agencies including MPS, DPI and other community agencies to initiate and develop proposal for funding culturally competent programs that will retain minority females in schools and provide them with access to higher education.

COMMUNITY AS CURRICULUM
Find interests and commitment of the partners involved. Learn to facilitate dialogue among the collaborative partners to discuss the issues relating to gender and culture in education. Learn to develop opportunities for learning around projects and activities in which participants are already involved.

STRATEGIC EDUCATIONAL ROLE
- Focus on negotiating the agendas of the collaborative partners
- Complete and submit the proposal for funding in the amount of $150,000
- Provide leadership in helping community organizations to work in partnerships with MPS and other agencies

Example II: Working With Milwaukee Public Schools: In this second example we draw from our work with the Milwaukee Public Schools and our use of learning communities to foster collaboration between parents, community residents, teachers, and administrators in addressing issues in the school, families and/or the community. The time line begins with the author (Folkman) joining the steering committee for a group of agencies and community based organizations called the School Community Integrated Services Network (SCISN). This group was originally convened by the Milwaukee Public Schools as part of an effort to promote collaboration between the schools and many different community agencies. During the 1996 academic year, SCISN was holding bimonthly presentations in which different agencies were invited to describe the range of programs and activities that they provide in one or more schools.

The steering committee wanted the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee (UWM) to host a half-day session but was having difficulty getting the program organized. Folkman took the initiative and coordinate a series of presentations by UWM faculty and staff who highlighted an impressive array of educational programs and research projects being offered through different academic departments, school, centers and institutes.

TIME LINE
Spring '96, Join SCISN

STRATEGIC GOAL
Establish a working relationship with MPS and assist in building a collaborative network among programs and agencies that promote strong schools, families and neighborhoods.

COMMUNITY AS CURRICULUM
SCISN members learn how to talk about and visualize the nature of collaborative networks that includes stakeholders with different and at times competing agendas.

STRATEGIC EDUCATIONAL ROLE

- Produce mini conference on UWM partnerships with different Milwaukee schools.
- Sustain membership and provide leadership in helping SCISN promote the idea of school partnerships involving different agencies, programs and stakeholder SCISN produces a series of mini conferences showing how different stakeholder groups are working with separate MPS schools.
- Producing numerous diagrams and schematics to help SCISN members visualize, articulate, differentiate and negotiate different and sometimes competing agendas.

TIME LINE
Spring '97, Implementing a series of participatory action research classes called learning communities.

STRATEGIC GOAL
Promoting collaboration between schools, families and community.

Bridging the social, cultural and professional gaps that separate stakeholders and prevent them from working together effectively.

COMMUNITY AS CURRICULUM
Learning how to create and sustain collaborative dialogue between stakeholder groups so they can produce tangible benefits for the school, families and/or community.

STRATEGIC EDUCATIONAL ROLE

- Focus on designing and implementing projects that will produce tangible results for the school, families and/or community
- Make public the hidden curriculum of learning how to create and sustain collaborative dialogue and action projects among stakeholders who have a history of being antagonistic toward each other.
- Offer university credit and continuing education units (CEUs) to participants in the learning community as part of a win-win strategy to recruit learning community members.
- Sustain educational program through the generation of fees paid by MPS through a mini TITLE I grant and professional staff development funds.

TIME LINE
Spring '98, Write proposal for 21st Century Community Learning Centers

STRATEGIC GOAL
Create a network of collaborating stakeholders to initiate community education programs in 11 Milwaukee schools. Secured $4.3 million to support programs over next three years.

COMMUNITY AS CURRICULUM
Learn how to create and sustain collaborative dialogue across major social systems including public schools, youth serving agencies, health providers, law enforcement agencies, job training programs, etc. all of whom have different and often competing agendas.

STRATEGIC EDUCATIONAL ROLE

- Promote the involvement of SCISN in large scale programs in which collaborating partners can find both common ground across their agendas as well as secure sufficient resources to sustain their involvement.
- Create a culture within the collaborating network that makes discussible the multiple conflicts and issues that are inherent in any collaborative effort.
- Recognize and acknowledge publicly that the network is composed of unequal partners , some of whom are at a disadvantage, unable to sustain their participation without additional resources.
- Demonstrate a good faith effort to help the smaller partners secure needed funding so they may remain as a contributing member sin the collaborative network
- Build trust and commitment among the collaborating stakeholders by demonstrating the willingness to make discussible issues that address the equitable sharing of resources, participation in decision-making, shared authority and responsibility as well as mutual accountability for producing tangible results.

Guiding Principles Within Our Research and Practice: The preceding examples show how we attempt to bridge the gap between research and practice by integrating teaching, research, service and income generation within our daily practice. Hopefully, this brief discus
sion of our work will serve to illustrate how we go about:

- Viewing the community as the curriculum for our teaching, research and service activities
- Holding collaboration as our operating principle
- Making co-ownership and shared decision-making as the norm for our practice,
- Facilitating dialogue, inquiry and reflection as our method for teaching, research and service,
- Seeing dilemmas and contradictions as the opportunity to frame issues for learning, inquiry and improved practice, and
- Finding common ground within the diversity of values, assumptions and agendas that exist among our many stakeholder groups.

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Daniel V. Folkman (Associate Professor) Kalyani Rai (Faculty Associate)

Outreach and Cont. Educ. Extension, 161 West Wisconsin Ave. Suite 6000, Milwaukee, WI 53203

414 -227-3285/E-mail: Folkman@csd.uwm.edu 414-227-3271/E-mail: Kalyanir@csd.uwm.edu

AMANDA'S STORY:
A CASE STUDY OF ADULT TRANSFORMATIVE LEARNING AND TEACHING

Falinda Geerling

ABSTRACT

The intention of this study is to help educators come to a better understanding of adult learning and how this understanding may impact their own philosophy and method of teaching adults. For the purpose of this study, adult learning will be defined in the Mezirowian tradition as transformative or emancipatory. A qualitative research design, a case study, was chosen because of the interconnectivity and complexity of the phases of Mezirow's transformative learning model. This study attempts to show how this pattern played out in one adult educator's personal and professional life and how it changed and liberated her to continually become a better teacher in an extremely challenging educational environment. No attempt is made to show cause and effect, and the results and conclusions drawn are based on the particulars of this case, not generalizations.

Introduction

What does it mean to be transformed? What is transformative learning? How does it impact our lives, both personally and professionally? As educators, many of us can intuitively or abstractly answer these questions. But when pressed, how many of us can concretely say what transformative learning means and how it has played out in our lives. Is it important to have this knowledge, understanding, skill? Will it somehow make a difference in our lives, in our learning and our teaching? In other words, will the knowledge, understanding, skill, and practice of transformative learning make us better people and educators?

"Amanda's Story: A Case Study of Adult Transformative Learning and Teaching" attempts to answer these questions will an emphatic "yes!" This case study follows one female educator's journey from a recently divorced, distraught neophyte, struggling to reach a very difficult and disillusioned body of adult students, to a peaceful, confident educator with many grateful and hopeful graduates. One of the most interesting aspects of Amanda's story is how when she began her transformative journey, she kept two separate journals--one for her "personal" life and the other for her "professional" life. As she gradually went through Mezirow's stages of transformative learning, changes in her personal life impacted her professional life and vice versa. Her two journals eventually became one. Furthermore, the changes Amanda made in her life were irreversible. She became a new and different person with no desire to return to the life she had left behind. So, even though she had never heard the term "tranformative learning," when asked what it might mean, her definition or description was fairly close to that of Mezirow's.

The Researcher's Role

Particularly in qualitative research the role of the researcher as the primary data collection instrument necessitates the identification of personal values, assumptions, and biases. Therefore, in an effort to make the researcher's role a useful and positive one, I am stating that my perceptions of higher education and the need for further discussion and study of what adult learning, particularly transformative learning, is and how it should be fostered have been shaped by my personal and professional experiences. Although I was introduced to Mezirow only about 2 years ago, I have experienced much transformative learning in my life and have used these experiences to the best of my ability in my college teaching. Because of these experiences, I bring certain biases to this study.

For instance, I believe transformative learning is difficult and time consuming both for the learner and the teacher. I therefore question whether transformative learning can be encouraged within the context and time frame of a typical college course and classroom. I also question how many adult educators recognize and understand the process of transformative learning. Furthermore, the study's participant is a long-time friend. Even though every effort is made to ensure objectivity, these biases may shape the way I view and understand the data I collect and the way I interpret my experiences.

Presentation of Amanda's Story, Using Mezirow's 11 Stages of Transformative Learning

The key to transformative or emancipatory learning is having adults get to a place where they longer wish to live with their youthful attitudes, behaviors, assumptions, and values. At this point, the adults change or transform their old patterns into new ones. Mezirow (1995) believes the transformative learning model is the only paradigm that captures true adult learning. Other educational writers with similar views are Brookfield (1987), Cranton (1994), King & Kitchener (1992), Paul (1992), Schon (1987), and Sofo (1995). Mezirow's model is based on his study of women returning to school after a long hiatus. It is often illustrated as a linear, though not always step-wise process, beginning with a disorienting dilemma followed by a self-examination of feelings, critical reflection, exploration, and planning of new roles, negotiating relationships, building of confidence, and developing a more inclusive and discriminating perspective (Taylor, 1997, p. 10).

The heart of transformative learning is critical reflection. Critical reflection, according to Mezirow, takes place in the context of problem solving, which includes the content of the problem, the process of problem solving, and the premise of problem solving. "Reflecting on the content and process of problems is the way we transform our meaning schemes, an everyday phenomenon." (Mezirow, 1995, p. 21). However, transforming one's meaning schemes and meaning perspectives can only be accomplished through what Mezirow calls "premise reflection." This is a less common and more significant adult learning experience. Mezirow believes the most significant adult learning involves "critical premise reflection" of one's assumptions about oneself.

Mezirow defines adult learning as a social process of construing and appropriating new or revised interpretation of meaning of one's experience as a guide to action. These meaning structures he calls one's frames of reference, perceptions, or meaning perspectives. Meaning schemes, according to Mezirow, are more specific dimensions of meaning structures. Meaning schemes are constellations of concepts, beliefs, judgments, and feelings that shape one's particular interpretations (i.e. one's meaning of abortion). The transforming of meaning structures and therefore meaning schemes occurs through reflection (Mezirow, 1995, p. 21).

Since the 1970s, Jack Mezirow (1978) has led the field of adult learning by proposing his multi-stage process of transformative leaning. However, others such as Clark (1991a) and Coffman (1989, 1991) have raised questions about the definition and sequence of transformative learning in adults. Nevertheless, this study examines Mezirow's ideas through a case study of one female adult educator who will be called "Amanda." Because the evidence presented here is based on Amanda's memories and therefore most likely distorted, readers should be warned the data are inconclusive. Nevertheless, Amanda's story presents an interesting case study of adult learning and teaching--one worth examining.

1. Disorienting Dilemma

Mezirow's first stage of his 11-phase transformative learning model is a disorienting dilemma. In 1984, at the age of 44, Amanda's disorienting dilemma occurred with the dissolution of her 25-year marriage to a prominent minister. Even though she herself had initiated the demise of their marriage, Amanda was, by her own admission, emotionally distraught when she applied for and was hired at the Job Corps. Job Corps is a government run training school for 16- 20-year-old men and women who mostly come from the inner cities of Chicago and Detroit and who live at the poverty level.

Furthermore, they are sometimes, if not often, down to their last choice between Job Corps or jail. As Amanda described it, Job Corps is their "last chance for leading a life of responsibility and having creature comforts."

For Amanda, Job Corps was a "different world." She claimed she was never frightened working there, but her friends and family certainly were scared for her. According to Amanda, many expressed their concerns and doubts she could survive in such an environment. Her soon-to-be ex-husband was the cruelest of all. He told her she would not last 6 months, but even though they had lived together for 25 years, had four children together, and adopted another, he definitely underestimated his estranged wife. She not only survived but thrived at Job Corps. Amanda has now been at Job Corps as a reading teacher for 13 years. She said, "As crazy as it is there, it saved my life."

2. Self-examination with feelings of guilt or shame, sometimes turning to religion for support

During the first year she was at the Job Corps, Amanda experienced Mezirow's second phase of transformative learning--self-examination of feelings of guilt or shame. In particular, she began questioning her low expectations for her students, her inability to motivate them, and her high expectations for herself. Religion, faith, had always been a part of Amanda's life. As she said, "Even though I thought about killing certain students, I always prayed for all of them, and for me." Yet, she was convinced that the students and the program would never change. The goals of having the students pass the reading test and moving them out like a machine would remain ever fixed.

3. Critical assessment of assumptions

In 1987, three years after she began working at the Job Corps, Amanda began the third and most important phase of Mezirow's adult learning process; namely, a critical assessment of her assumptions. A two-month encounter with a black male student changed dramatically her perspective of her work. During that two-month period the student grew to trust Amanda and as they sat together and he struggled to read, the student began to talk about his life, his inability to read, and his sad family situation. Amanda simply listened, and the student opened up further and talked about his hopes and dreams. They would read small passages together and talk about them. Finally, the last week they were together, the student asked Amanda, "Why do you care about me anyway?"

Amanda said this question was the trigger that started her "reflecting" on why she really was there. She knew she had first come because "no one knew who my spouse was or cared." She stayed because "she had always known since she was a little girl that literature is life, but these kids were what literature is made of and no one had ever taken an interest in them, especially not an academic interest." This "revelation" or "connection" transformed the way she thought about her students and the way she taught them.

At about the same time as Amanda's professional transformation, the curriculum at Job Corps also changed due to the findings of a Department of Labor task force. The reading content became much broader, offering the students many choices — short stories, poems, life skills, non-fiction, geographies, science fiction, sports, multicultural pieces. Amanda said, "As the students had more choices, they also had more responsibilities." Giving her students more responsibilities, she believed, was the most striking difference in her teaching methods when comparing her students before and after her transformation and the change in the curriculum.

Nevertheless, Amanda said giving her students more responsibilities was both the easiest and hardest thing she had ever done in her teaching career because she always wanted to "tell the story." In other words, she wanted to lecture and control the interpretation of the meaning of what was being read. Again, it was an encounter with one of her white, male students who drove home the point that she would never change the spiraling downward course of these students unless she changed her ways of teaching.

The incident happened in 1988. The student was asleep in the back of Amanda's room. One of her rules was students do not sleep in her room, so Amanda proceeded to wake him up. As he arose, he said, "F____ you, Mrs. Hart." Amanda said, "What did you say?" Another student politely and loudly blurted out again what the sleepy student had said, "He said, f____ you, Mrs. Hart." Amanda left the room to seek her supervisor's help, but the supervisor was on her way to a meeting and simply told Amanda to "write him up." Amanda returned to her room to find the student had written a poem in her absence. The period ended without further incidence.

The next day, however, the same student, who had been sleeping in class the day before, exposed himself to the class and announced he had smoked a "happy stick." Happy sticks are a combination of marijuana and embalming fluid and are a very cheap high, according to Amanda. She wrote him up again, and the next day he was gone. Nevertheless, Amanda said this unpleasant encounter was another "turning point or jolt." She realized, as a teacher, she needed to let students take responsibility for what they do and do not learn.

At about the same time as this incident with the sleeping student, Amanda saw the movie, Conrack, which is based on the real life story of the *Prince of Tides'* author Patrick Conroy. "It took my breath away," said Amanda. She described the story about a young, white, male teacher who came to an island in North Carolina on his first teaching assignment. His students were all black, six- sixteen-year-old males and females who "knew nothing." Conroy (the students called him Mr. Conrack) had to teach them not only about reading but about music, history, their heritage, sports, Halloween (They had

never heard about Trick or Treat). "The movie made an impact because it taught me to think outside of the book," said Amanda.

She began to think "outside of the book" in her reading classes, and she soon discovered she was learning more from her students than they were learning from her. "Every day I wake up curious," said Amanda. "I wonder what can I learn from these kids today." She added, "It's all about getting a professional but human relationship with the students. They are more important than the reading."

This revelation came to Amanda as she worked with an 18-year-old black, female student. "Kim was beautiful and tall, cooperative and mature," said Amanda. "Yet, she came with a second grade reading level." One day as Kim and Amanda were reading a story together about a character named Corinna, Kim shyly mentioned that Corinna had been her mother's name. When Amanda questioned her further, the student poured out the story about how her mother had been a prostitute and how she had been strangled and stabbed in a parking lot. The murderer had never been found. Hearing that tragic story, Amanda's new insights and perspectives about literature being life and her students being literature and being more important than reading was founded in the caring and trusting relationship she built with this student.

Another student Amanda fondly remembered was Kenyatta, a 20-year-old black male from Chicago, who also came to Amanda with about a second grade reading level. "He was big and gentle," said Amanda. "Within 1½ years, he had earned his GED."

Even so, Amanda now understands no teacher can reach everyone. "Eighty percent of the students at Job Corps want a better life, but 10 percent are incorrigible. They have a thug-like mentality. They threaten and manipulate. They are lethargic, and they don't care." Even with these students, Amanda always talks about respect and responsibility (e.g. no talking when time to read). Even though she did admit she yelled at a class once, for which she felt very guilty lowering herself to their level, most of the time she deals with the few uncontrollable students with a sense of humor. About one male student, whom she described as a "chauvinist," Amanda said, "Some people deserve to die. I'd kill him if I didn't have to suffer the consequences. I'll still be there when he is not. Someone will do him in. It will probably be a big female, and I will clap."

Amanda also told another story about another chauvinist male student whom she was unable to control. In this situation, however, a female student, whom the male student had been "hitting on," expressed Amanda's message of respect and responsibility better than Amanda ever could. She asked the rebellious student how long he had been in the class. Without waiting for an answer, the female student chastised the male student, "You're going to spend the rest of your life illiterate."

Through her experiences at Job Corps, especially with her students, Amanda has learned many lessons. First and foremost, she has gone "from thinking you can help every student to realizing you cannot." Second, she no longer develops elaborate group lesson plans. She now works with students individually. Third, she thinks of the school as a movie. "I just cut out the boring parts, where no one does anything." Fourth and last, she **tells them stories** (Amanda's emphasis). "A good story is never boring."

4. Recognition of one's discontent and process of transformation is shared with others who have negotiated similar change

In order to maintain her motivation and enthusiasm in a very challenging educational environment, Amanda said she reads books such as *Popular Education and Its Discontents* and *Devotions for Teachers*, goes to movies such as Dangerous Minds, and talks with colleagues and friends. She also has a very positive and supporting relationship with her supervisor. Even so, she said she has rejected some of the methods used by other teachers because they were "unfair to the students" and "prevented them from doing well in class."

5. Exploration of options for new roles, relationships, and actions

Amanda's observations and judgments seem to indicate she has engaged in the fifth phase of Mezirow's transformative learning model; namely, the exploration of options for new roles, relationships, and actions. Consequently, she has gained self-confidence in her own ideas, feelings, and expectations for herself and her role and relationship to her students, colleagues, and supervisor. For instance, in 1988, as she tried to encourage more responsibility among her students, she had the incident with the sleeping student. When she went to her supervisor for help, she gave her no support. Amanda was left with the choice of either giving up and quitting or returning to her classroom and learning how to deal with incorrigible students. She chose the later. She developed her sense of humor and became more adamant in her demands for respect and responsibility in her students in her classroom.

Fortunately, for Amanda, as her perspective of her role as a teacher and her relationship with her students changed, the curriculum also changed. As Amanda began to "think outside of the book," the reading content became much broader, offering the students many choices. Amanda supplemented this new curriculum with her other love -- movies.

6. Planning a course of action

The most striking change in Amanda's teaching methods was the adaptation of individual reading plans, instead of elaborate group lesson plans. This change is consistent with Mezirow's sixth phase in his transformative learning model; namely, planning a course of action.

7. Acquiring knowledge and skills for implementing one's plan

She continues to acquire knowledge and skills for implementing her students' individual plans by reading, watching movies, talking with colleagues, friends, her supervisor, and journaling.

Since 1981, Amanda has chronicled her transformation in 15 journals. At first, she said she kept two separate records. One she called her "Job Corps" journal, and the other was her "personal" journal. "I wanted to capture the experience and the humor. It was a way to deal with my worry about whether I could do this (divorce and Job Corps), and it was a way to sort things out. It's easy to forget. I wanted to remember the strategies that worked for me, and more importantly, literature is life!"

Keeping a journal came naturally to her, according to Amanda. Her mom and dad had passed on their love of books. Her high school principal had read a chapter everyday after lunch over the intercom. At 17, her boyfriend at the time "woke her up" to reading literature. In particular a book, *Testament of Life*," by Henry Zylstra influenced her to start writing her own journal. "It is therapeutic, and I want to be published someday."

When she began writing her two journals, Amanda said she was unhappy with her personal life. She was miserable and cried a lot. Gradually, as she became happier in her professional life, gaining the respect of her colleagues, supervisor, and, most importantly, the students, she grew happier in her personal life and her two journals became one.

8. Provisionally try out new roles

By coming to Job Corps, Amanda was able to provisionally try out new roles. This is Mezirow's eighth phase of adult learning. When she came to Job Corps, by her own admission, Amanda felt like a "non-person." She said, "I had had a boyfriend from the second grade, and there was always someone until I got divorced in 1987. I also am very close to my father and my three brothers. In college, I majored in elementary education because I thought I was too 'mealy mouthed' to teach high school. At Job Corps, I used to say if I got through the day and no one killed anyone, I'd had a good day. Now, I look forward to each day because no two days are the same and the students learn. We read everything from Emily Dickens to Langston Hughes. I feel fulfilled."

9. Renegotiating relationship and negotiating new relationships

Perhaps Amanda's fear of confronting herself, of failing herself, of having to admit she needed a man to define who she was was more compelling than anything or anyone she faced at the Job Corps. Furthermore, it was this fear, this self-doubt, that motivated and compelled her into the ninth phase of Mezirow's transformative learning model; namely, renegotiating relationships and negotiating new relationships. This inference is shown most dramatically in her act of keeping two journals. During those beginning years at Job Corps, Amanda saw herself living two separate lives -- one personal and one professional. She said, "I learned to turn off thoughts about work and redirect them to my personal life."

10. Building competence and self-confidence in new roles and relationships

As her competence grew professionally, her self-confidence in her new roles and relationships--both professional and personal--also bloomed. This is consistent with Mezirow's tenth phase of adult learning; namely, building competence and self-confidence in new roles and relationships.

11. Reintegration into one's life on the basis of conditions dictated by one's new perspectives

Finally, as with Mezirow's eleventh phase of his transformative learning model, Amanda was able to reintegrate her personal and professional lives. This was demonstrated most strikingly as her two journals became one.

In summarizing what she has learned from working as a reading teacher at the Job Corps for the past 13 years, Amanda said, "I'm open to the students to learn as much from them as they learn from me. I see myself as a facilitator. I create and maintain an atmosphere of trust, motivation, humor, respect, and story telling. I continue to change myself as well as the students as they (we) learn."

Conclusions

In conclusion, I believe Amanda's story is an interesting demonstration of Mezirow's theory of transformative learning and how the process does seem to occur more in a line than a spiral. This case study of one female adult educator shows not only how and why personal transformation occurs but also how and why it affects professional transformation and the impact on adult students. I believe in order for adult educators to foster transformative learning in the classroom, they must experience transformative learning personally. That is why it is important for adult educators to have some knowledge, understanding, skill, and practice in the Mezirowian tradition of

transformative learning. The key to this process is to recognize when old attitudes, behaviors, assumptions, and values are no longer working and that they need to be changed or transformed into new patterns. At the heart of transformative learning is critical perspective reflection, which is the phase of the process that changes a person's meaning perspectives. It is not done in isolation. It is a ". . . social process of construing and appropriating new or revised interpretation of meaning of one's experience as a guide to action." (Mezirow, 1995, p. 21) Adult educators, therefore, who continually foster transformative learning in themselves will most likely foster transformative learning in their students. During the process, they will not only change the direction and goals of their own lives but those of their students. Together, they will transform each other and never be the same again. Amanda's story shows how as she transformed her meaning perspectives about herself and her role as a teacher, she was able to more successfully foster transformative learning among her students in her classroom.

Even so, it is often a difficult and time-consuming process both for the learner and the teacher. As with all adult learning theories, Mezirow's model has its limitations. That is why much more research is needed in the field of adult learning, particularly transformative learning. Amanda herself recognizes its constraints. For instance, she realizes no matter how exceptional the theory, in practice she cannot reach everyone. Sometimes she wonders if adult educators can teach anyone anything. But then she remembers she is only one teacher with 100, often different and very challenging, students per week, and she remembers the note she received from one, "To: Harp (her last name is Hart), thank you for all the learning you gave me."

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Falinda Geerling, 4124 Cummings Court NW, Walker, MI 49544
(616) 735-0630 FAX (616) 735-0631 (call phone number first)
e-mail: geerlin3@altelco.net

LEARNING TO WRITE FOR THE GED EXAM: THE ROLE OF ACTIVITY, TOOLS, AND CULTURE

Catherine A. Hansman
Arthur L. Wilson

ABSTRACT

Traditional writing models represent the kind of academic-style thinking/writing required to pass the GED test. But are such generalized depictions of a writing process the best way to teach adults, particularly low-literate adults, to write successfully for the GED? In this paper, we argue that in order for GED students to write successfully for the GED writing exam, they must learn the culture of academics through legitimate participation.

In 1988, General Educational Development (GED) testing standards added academic writing as a component of the test. The GED Writing Skills Test requires students "to generate a writing sample, a process minimally requiring conception of ideas, deciding on language structures, composing sentences and paragraphs, and providing effective examples and other support for ideas within a 45 minute time frame" (Dauzat & Dauzat, 1987, p. 28). Helping students get ready for the writing portion of the GED exam requires GED instructors to teach writing to adults who have "limited experience with written expression and are taking the course to prepare for academic and career endeavors" (Sommer, 1989, p. 199). Taylor (1987), predicted that the "writing requirement would be very difficult for 65%-75% of our (GED) students, that large numbers will be placed in ABE or Pre-GED in order to have sufficient time to master the material, that virtually no one will pass the GED without formal instruction in writing" (p.23).

Learning to write successfully for the GED exam means that students need to become enculturated into academic-style thinking and writing. However, typical teaching models of the writing process represent writing as an internal psychological process and ignore the culture of the writing classroom and the tools, such as computers, which may frame how writing is taught. Process models of the writing (e.g., Murray, 1980; Flower & Hayes, 1981) encourage students to move in a step-wise fashion from one part of the writing process to the next. This approach assumes that a general set of writing skills applies to any learning context and that adult learners simply need to apply general writing principles and procedures to their writing in order to become successful writers. However, stepwise models represent a decontextualized abstraction of the writing process that ignores how activity, social culture, and writing tools, such as pen and paper or computer word processors, allow students to construct their own processes for writing..

Although the writing models may give students a process to follow when writing academically, are these models the best way to teach adults, particularly "low-literate" (Hayes, 1988) adult learners who are not familiar with academic culture? The problem this paper addresses, then, is that the theories or models which are used to frame writing instruction, while providing an instrumental structure to writing instruction, do not address the enculturation processes (Lave & Wenger, 1991) needed by adult learners to understand and participate in academic culture and successfully complete academic-style writing assignments, such as the writing requirement for the GED exam. The purpose of this paper is to examine, from literature and empirical studies, how writing is traditionally taught to adult learners. Since writing has become a part of the GED exam, what research has helped frame writing instruction for adult learners? What are the major teaching theories for

writing? Finally, how might writing instruction look if tools, culture, and activity were integrated into teaching writing to adult learners?

Adult Education and Writing Instruction

Studies concerning literacy and ABE/GED reading and writing instruction have for the most part examined reasons for participation (Beder, 1990; Boggs, Buss & Yarneel, 1978; Kreitlow, Glustrom & Martin, 1981) or non-participation (Hayes, 1988, Beder & Valentine 1990). Hayes' (1988) research uncovered psychological reasons for non-participation: low self-confidence, social disapproval, situational barriers, negative attitude to classes, and low personal priorities. Similarly, Beder & Valentine's (1990) study of non-participation showed that reasons why adults do not participate in Adult Basic Education are multidimensional and include low perceptions of needs, the perception that participation would entail too much effort, dislike for school, and situational barriers. Fingeret's (1983) research of illiterate adults showed that they had developed an extensive social culture that was at odds with the expectations of ABE/GED programs. Fingeret concluded that if adult educators do not learn to work with illiterate adults, many illiterate adults will refuse to participate in traditional literacy programs. Perhaps learning to work with adult learners means helping adult learners understand and participate in academic culture.

Jorgenson (1988) called for staff development to help teachers learn how to teach writing to low-literate adult students. However, there are few articles that focus on helping teachers learn to teach writing to adult learners. Most of these articles suggest a process for writing that mirrors the dominant academic models discussed in the next section of this paper. If the students' main objective is to pass the GED writing exam, Swartz and Whitney (1987) recommended that writing instructors assign a "number of shorter assignments which emphasize revision and rewriting. Through this method, students get equal amounts of practice at writing by polishing their work on fewer assignments" (p. 11). Taylor (1987) recommends teachers apply writing processes developed by Emig (1971) or Flower and Hayes (1977), which essentially involves the process of pre-writing, writing, revising and editing. However, Swartz and Whitney caution teachers against prescribing a process for writing, arguing that insisting on one process for writing can be as artificial to students as lectures on grammar, especially if students have already developed a method for writing that seems to work for them. None of these studies or articles, however, focused on helping adult learners understand academic culture through tools for writing, activity within the writing classroom, and social construction of knowledge.

Other research studies concerning adult learners and writing have focused on survey research regarding the attitudes of teachers toward integrating computers and technology into writing instruction in these programs (Askov & Means, 1993; Freer & Alexander, 1996; Lewis, 1988) and needs assessment surveys concerning literacy and technology (Alexander & Palmer, 1991; Jenkins & Kirsch, 1992; Palmer & Alexander, 1990). Freer & Alexander's study confirmed earlier studies by Askov and Means (1993) and Crew & Baston (1992) that show the lack of staff training in integrating computers into writing instruction and lack of funding may inhibit the widespread use of computers to teach writing in state sponsored ABE/GED programs. Stanfel (1996) described using computers to "reward" students who complete assignments correctly. The process she described students used for writing consisted of students writing by hand, rewriting, then "entering the data into the computer, make final corrections, and read the work to the other students" (p. 174). While she does describe using the computer for writing, in her classroom students use the computer for little more than a technologically enhanced typewriter, and not as a tool integrated into the culture of the writing classroom.

Dominant Models of the Writing Process

Expressive and Cognitive Views: Dominant teaching models of writing characterize learning to write as largely an internal cognitive activity and consequently focus on "logical" steps writers should take to produce writing. The two most common prescriptive views for writing, the expressive view and the cognitive view, depict learning as an internal mental process. They also describe the "status and practices" (Miller, 1992, p. 74) of those who teach writing. They did not, however, "address the many cultural histories of the writing situations that all students have encountered, including those who were lower class, women, or minority writers outside privileged academic settings" (p. 75). Models within the expressive view of the writing process involve integrating heuristics, or general probes usually as questions, into the writing process at specific times. Murray (1980) developed a process for writing consisting of five steps: collecting, focusing, ordering, developing, and clarifying. Murray suggested that writers can combine this process with other heuristics, such as freewriting, brainstorming, or mapping, and apply them to any composing problem. From Emig's 1971 study of the composing processes of twelfth graders, cognitive models of writing emerged. Flower and Hayes (1981) developed a recursive writing model based on cognitive psychology and consisting of three elements: planning, translating, and reviewing. In the planning stage, writers use their long-term memory to plan their writing. Planning involves several other smaller processes, such as generating ideas, organizing these ideas, and setting goals for writing. During the second part of this process, writers articulate and write down the ideas generated in the planning stage. In the third part, writers review and evaluate, and/or revise the text (Flower & Hayes, 1981). Expressive and cognitive views of the writing process present a process for writing, inherently linear, and are strictly a process for writing, not for explaining or helping students understand the culture of academic writing.

Social-Epistemic View and Talk-Write: A third perspective on the process of writing, the social-epistemic view, was developed, in part, when more non-traditional, older and "non-white, non-upper middle class" (Tarvers, 1993, p. 26) students entered university writing programs, forcing teachers of writing to change their expectations about the kinds of writing knowledge students brought with them, such as knowing how to sustain a thesis, support arguments, or how academics in universities think and thus expect students to think and write. The social-epistemic view of teaching writing encourages teachers to help students understand the constraints of the discourse community by analyzing the contexts that shape their writing and the forces that govern those contexts (Faigley, 1986). From this perspective, then, teachers of writing help students "discover the basic strategies by which they can determine and fulfill the requirements of various types of discourse" (Perelman, 1986, p. 476) or writing assignments.

A fourth model of the writing process, *talk-write pedagogy* (Zoellner, 1969), combines notions from both the social-epistemic and expressive views and challenges the cognivist position. That challenge arises through their view of social collaboration as the central dimension of writing: writers and readers continually interact and "talk" to make meaning about what they are writing. Zoellner advocates social collaboration among writing students in which writers and readers continuously "talk" and interact to make sense of their writing and further contends that traditional models of writing have failed students because they demand that students internalize the rules and abstract concepts about what constitutes good writing (Walters, 1992) instead of allowing students opportunities to talk about their writing and to discover their own writing processes. The emphasis in this theory, however, is on dialogue between teacher-student, not on the social interactions among

students themselves in the writing classroom and how these interactions may allow students to construct their knowledge about writing.

While both the social-epistemic perspective and talk-write perspectives locate writing as constructed in the writing classroom and lack prescriptive "how to's" for teaching writing, both also ignore the tools with which writers use to write and how these tools may shape context for writing. Expressive and Cognitive views do not take into account how the context of learning, such as the social structure of the writing classroom, or the writing tools themselves, such as computers, may affect the processes students use for writing. In addition, as Swartz and Whitney (1987) pointed out, insisting that adult learners follow a prescribed process for writing may block students and not let them access what they already know about writing. Missing from all traditional models of writing is how adults actually construct meaning and learn to write in the ABE and GED writing classrooms, technical schools, and other adult education locales. We argue that what is needed is to re-conceptualize adult writing theory as a "situated activity," shaped by how writing students shape and are shaped by the social practices of interaction, the activity of writing itself, and the culturally provided tools used in writing.

Situating Learning in the GED Writing Classroom

Traditional cognitive psychological understandings of learning (and in this case, writing) describe a conceptual process of acquiring and storing knowledge for future use (Driscoll, 1994) in any situation. Situated cognition suggests that knowledge is a relationship between the individual and the social or physical situation in which he or she learns (Orey & Nelson, 1994). Knowing, from a situated cognition perspective, is not an independent internal mental process, but is fundamentally situated as a product of activity, context, and culture (Lave, 1988). Writing classrooms that provide opportunities for adult learners to see writing modeled, receive coaching both from instructors and other adult learners, and actively practice writing using the computers or pen and paper as tools for writing lead to students' constructing their knowledge about writing.

The social view of the writing process suggests that learners are constituents of a culture. But as Lave (1988) explains, learners also fashion their culture at the same time; thus how adult learners write may well depend on the context within which the learning is taking place, and, as Lave suggests, on the tools they use as they learn. Learning is fundamentally situated as a product of activity, context, and culture. Lave (1988) argues that learning cannot be understood simply as an internal, individual mental process in which the mind acquires and stores knowledge for future use in any context. Instead, human cognition is profoundly situated: learning and knowing are structured by people interacting with each other in tool-dependent environments, which leads to an understanding of learning as a complex social phenomenon. This approach to adult learning incorporates the mind, body, activity and culturally provided tools in a complex web of recursive interactions (Rogoff & Lave, 1984; Brown, Collins & Duguid, 1989). In other words, "knowing and learning are centrally integrated within the language, tools, and culture of socially organized settings...setting and activity dialectically structure cognition" (Wilson, 1993, pg. 336). Viewing learning from this perspective causes us to develop an understanding of how tools and social interaction structure cognition. Investigating learning this way helps us understand adult cognition as socially interactive, activity-based, and tool dependent. Nystrand (1990) defines social interaction as the individual interactions and discourse between writers and readers within writing communities. Shared experiences exert a powerful influence on how individuals perceive the world around them (Geertz, 1973). Viewing knowledge about writing as socially constructed through social interactions within the computer classroom situates students in the active construction of their own

processes for writing. The implication for teachers of adults, then, is that modeling, coaching, and practice are the best approaches to foster learning (Cognition and Technology Group at Vanderbilt, 1990; Farmer, Buckmaster & LeGrand, 1992; Schon, 1987; Wilson, 1993).

Teachers in writing classrooms can provide opportunities for adult learners to see writing modeled, receive coaching both from instructors and other adult learners, and actively practice writing using the computers as tools for writing. Duin and Hansen (1994) propose that teachers allow students to situate "their cognition and their making of meaning in a real-world situation that promotes active participation in the learning process" (p. 89). Social interaction, which allows exchange of ideas and discourse between students in computer classrooms as they read and discuss each others' writing projects, leads to social construction of knowledge about writing.

What might writing instruction look like in a writing classroom where adult learners are situated within an active culture, which, through activity, tools and social interaction, enabled them to learn academic culture and thus how to write within this culture? Hansman & Wilson (1998) found that adult learners in a computer writing classroom saw several variables as key to their learning to write academically. First, learners indicated that computers were "tools" that gave them "power over" their writing in terms of having more control over the writing process; thus, computers used as tools shaped how students wrote. Second, the activity of writing using computers in the computer classroom allowed students to construct their own processes for writing, which typically meant that they did not follow prescribed "how to" methods as advocated by expressive or cognivist views of the writing process. Instead, adult learners found or constructed their own process for writing. Third, the interactive social culture within the computer writing classroom provided opportunities for adult learners to "talk about" their writing and the computers as tools for writing with each other, therefore allowing them to construct their knowledge about writing. Consequently, their social interactions with each other and the culture within the computer writing classroom contributed to their development as writers and their knowledge about academic culture and subsequently, academic writing.

Conclusion

Quigley (1990) and Fingeret (1983) called for non-deficit perspective and attitudinal changes within the field of adult literacy. From his study of non-participation, Quigley contends that non-participants differ from participants, thus programs designed on the participant minority cannot be assumed to be fully appropriate for the non-participant majority. Since the non-participants in his literature study resisted normative values and cultural systems, it points toward the need for learner-grounded education models.

Because the group of participants in ABE/GED programs is far from homogenous, one design will never meet the needs of everyone, but "the design and context will be based on discourse with learners, developing alternate programs grounded in acceptable values and cultural systems by seeking learning possibilities with resisters and their significant others" (Quigley, 1990, p. 113). As Keddie argues, the question is not "whether individuals have needs nor whether they should be met, but how these needs are socially and politically constituted and understood, how they are articulated and whose voice is heard" (1980, p. 63). We argue that when teaching writing, adult learners' voices must be heard. We further propose that adults learn best when situating their cognition and their making of meaning in real-world situations that promote active participation in the learning process. Tools, coaching, apprenticeship, and authentic activity which allows exchange of ideas and discourse between students in writing classrooms as they read and discuss each other's writing projects, lead to

social construction of knowledge about writing. This social construction of knowledge is essential for adult learners to learn academic culture and thus, academic writing.

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References will be provided upon request.

Catherine A. Hansman
Assistant Professor &
Program Coordinator, Adult Learning
Counseling, Administration, Supervision
& Adult Learning
Rhodes Tower, Rm. 1407
Cleveland State University
Cleveland, Ohio 44115
Ph: (216) 523-7134
email: c.hansman@popmail.csuohio.edu

Arthur L. Wilson
Assistant Professor
Department of Community
College Education
310 Poe Hall, Box 7801
North Carolina State University
Raleigh NC 27695
Ph: (919) 515-6243

email: Arthur@poe.coe.ncsu.edu

BRIDGING LIFE WITH LEARNING: A GROUNDED THEORY OF COHORT LEARNING IN A NON-TRADITIONAL DEGREE COMPLETION PROGRAM

Paul Holtorf

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to propose a grounded theory of the learning experiences of a cohort in a Degree Completion Program (DCP). One cohort consisting of fourteen students meeting at a college campus served as the basis for this study. Along with interviews, observations were conducted during the first seventeen sessions that the cohort met in the DCP. Analysis of semi-structured interview protocols along with observations yielded the phenomenon of the study, bridging life with learning. Bridging life with learning contained a three-part definition of the phenomenon: 1) The module serves as a framework in which the cohort learner acts; 2) A situation presents itself to the cohort learner in which an informed action step based on the module is taken; 3) Following this action step, the cohort learner takes the results of the action step back to the cohort for discussion and analysis. This new phenomenon served to explain the learning experiences and the motivation of the cohort. This paper relates bridging life with learning to the relevant literature. Also, this paper sets forth implications for practice and research for further discussion during the conference presentation.

Introduction

Throughout the country, colleges and universities are recognizing the need to provide educational opportunities to those students who try to balance work, family, and educational experiences. One non-traditional educational approach that has emerged nationally in recent years is the cohort accelerated program (CAP). Typically, a cohort defined as a group of students ranging in size from ten to twenty students, will meet one night a week over a period of twelve to eighteen months. If the adult learner has the right type and amount of undergraduate credits prior to entering the program, he or she can achieve a bachelor's degree in twelve to eighteen months.

The cohort approach for non-traditional students, i.e. adult learners, raises many questions related to the legitimacy of the approach and sparks dialogue among educators regarding adult education theory. Instructional approaches, motivation to learn, adult learners, the role of the instructor, and life experiences of adults are just some of the issues facing the higher education community. Couple this aspect with higher education's competition for students and their tuition dollars, and you have a fascinating dynamic emerging in higher education in the late twentieth century.

Review of the Literature

As a researcher, I came into this study with many theoretical frameworks and definitions. In some ways, this was very helpful to me in writing up this study. As I entered the cohort learning classroom on May 8, 1997, I put aside the theoretical frameworks. I allowed my interviews, based on my observations of the cohort, to provide a literature framework for this study. The broad elements of this framework consisted of the adult learner, the cohort or group, and the curriculum instruction.

In regards to the adult learner, motivation emerged as a key literature area based on observations and the interview process. Motivation can be defined as the process whereby goal-directed activity is instigated and sustained (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). Also, motivation can be

defined as "staying power," drive, ambition, and tenacity (Courtney, 1992). Dweck and Leggett (1988) link motivation with goals in adult education. Motivation and goals influence the learning process of the adult learner (Courtney, Speck, & Holtorf, 1996; Pintrich, Marx, & Boyle, 1993).

Literature on the cohort focused on the task of learning as a group. The cohort reflected the establishment of relationships and an engagement of task achievement and learning (Imel & Tisdell, 1996). The cohort provided a context for motivation stemming from the cohort itself. Sivan (1986) links motivation to the sociocultural context: "The individual no longer acts as the instigator of motivation. Rather, motivation is a socially negotiated process that results in an observable manifestation or interest and cognitive and affective engagement" (p.210). Courtney and Speck (1996) summarize motivation from a sociocultural perspective:

Instead of asking the kinds of questions like "how do we get their attention?" or "how do we keep up their interest?", we are studying what is authentic or real about the learning environment in which learning is taking place. How are communities of practice being or to be established? How do we create a sense of membership in or ownership of the project or task? (p.9).

As learning communities form and motivation is reconceptualized, there still are issues of conflict and power that affect group learning (Imel & Tisdell, 1996; Tisdell, 1993). Especially for the facilitator do these issues become critical as one seeks equality in the classroom (Imel & Tisdell, 1996). Group process and development (Wheelan, 1994) help explain why issues of power and conflict occur. As the group works on problem-solving, there remains hope that power and conflict issues will be dealt with in a responsible fashion.

Finally, curriculum instruction focusing on the instructor and motivation emerged as a relevant literature base for the study. Instructors carry into the classroom influencing beliefs and perspectives that affect adult learners and shape classroom practice (Dirkx & Spurgin, 1992). Instructors find themselves as mentors (Mezirow, 1991), models (Bandura, 1986), and in apprentice-like relationships (McLellan, 1994) in the cohort learning context.

Motivation in curriculum instruction focuses both upon the instructor and the cohort. If one is to look at motivation from a sociocultural perspective, then the nature and type of instruction must be evaluated. The instructor has the responsibility to provide the framework by which social-constructed motivation will take place. The nature of instruction and the sorts of specific conditions that instructors organize for students' learning need to be evaluated (Rueda & Moll, 1994). When an instructor integrates the cohort's experience with learning, a context exists for motivation within the curriculum instruction.

Study Design and Data Gathering

As I proceeded to map out my approach, there were several items that I addressed as I conceptualized my study. First, I wanted to study a cohort that was beginning the DCP, not a cohort that had already been established. Second, I wanted to obtain data in various ways such as observations of the cohort in class, personal interviews, and memo-writing. Third, my intent was not to look at the cohort during the entire eighteen months, but rather to look at the formation of the cohort as it related to motivation and learning in its initial phase of the DCP.

The setting for this study was a cohort located on campus of a Midwestern liberal arts college. The cohort began their course work on May 8, 1997. I studied this cohort during the first four modules of the DCP, a period that began May 8, 1997 and ended September 11, 1997. The cohort ranged in age from 26 to 55. The cohort had a blend of adults, some attending college for the very first time, while others were returning students from previous colleges and universities.

In terms of data gathering, I observed seventeen learning sessions of the cohort. Observations occurred every week, beginning with the first night of class. An average class session started at 6:00 p.m. and finished at 10:00 p.m. I arrived in the classroom approximately twenty to twenty-five minutes before the class began in order to observe any interaction that might be relevant to the study. Likewise, I remained with the cohort ten to fifteen minutes after class for the same reason. The following elements were included in my observations: the academic module, number of students (female/male), the type of modular activities, classroom arrangement, descriptive information (activities), and reflective information (personal observations).

I conducted two rounds of interviews. In the first round, I interviewed the entire cohort of fourteen. After constant comparisons were done, I went ahead with theoretical sampling. In my second round of interviews, I selected six from the cohort who seem to integrate their learning experiences in the DCP with their work site. Also I interviewed the Module Three instructor on Management concepts who linked the student's experience with the curriculum instruction. The questions in these interviews were based on my observations of the cohort during the class session. The interviews were semi-structured and open-ended, allowing the interviewees the opportunity to express themselves as freely as possible.

I incorporated memo-writing throughout the data gathering and analysis process. Memo-writing aids the researcher by giving her or him an opportunity to reflect the researcher's thoughts about theoretical questions, hypotheses, and a summary of codes (Strauss, 1987). It may also stimulate further coding and serves as a major means for integrating theory.

Findings

As a result of open and axial coding from the data, the phenomenon *bridging life with learning* emerged as the central essence in this study. The first aspect of this phenomenon focused on the module itself. The module was a subject matter that was taught in a four-, five-, or six-week schedule. The module became a point of reference for the cohort member to act outside the classroom. If she or he took the action step in her or his work site, it would be an informed action step because she or he received the knowledge base from the module.

The second aspect to the phenomenon was the situation in which the informed action step is taken by the cohort member. It was this action step, or praxis, in a given situation, most likely at work, that provided a testing of the knowledge one was receiving in the DCP. The cohort member took this step by virtue of being in the class with the rest of the cohort members. Although the outcome was not known until after the informed action step was taken, the cohort member understood that there were other members in the cohort, providing a support-like atmosphere week after week.

The third aspect to the phenomenon dealt with cohort members taking the action step back to the cohort for discussion and analysis. Cohort members could see that the unique learning environment of the cohort enabled some to experience success in their action steps. Some learned and were motivated to seek out their own situations to take the informed action steps. As these experiences were shared with the cohort, I gained the sense that the cohort became energized to learn. Making connections to their own situations became the norm of the cohort as they *bridged life with learning*.

Conclusion

This study draws implications for research and practice. In regards to research, the first implication centers on gathering basic data of cohorts in DCPs. At present there is a lack of

sufficient data on cohort learning communities in accelerated programs. A second implication focuses on the issues of learning and motivation. Now that a phenomenon has been identified in cohort learning communities, it is necessary to take the next step in describing how learning occurs and where the motivation resides in the cohort.

Likewise, this study draws implications for practice. The first implication deals with the modular structure in accelerated learning contexts. Being cognizant of each module's curriculum and the type of instructor teaching that module would ensure a sustained learning atmosphere in the cohort. The second implication involves the selection process in identifying instructors for the DCPs. The cohort identified very strongly with professionals in their specific fields. The appeal for the cohort rests with the professional's ability to bring on-the-job experiences, experiences that were fresh to the cohort.

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Paul Holtorf, PastorAdjunct-faculty
St. John Lutheran ChurchConcordia University
919 N. Columbia Ave.275 Syndicate St. North
Seward, NE 68434St. Paul, MN 55104
ph85712@navix.net

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JUMPING TO "WARP-SPEED" WITH BLURRED VISION: DISTANCE EDUCATION AND THE SOCIAL MISSION OF ADULT EDUCATION

Gaye Ranck Jenkins

ABSTRACT

This paper addresses the historic mission of adult education and its role in social justice within the context of the "warp-speed" advances in distance education provided by telecommunications technology. Included is a brief review of the historic mission of adult education, a brief background in technological history related to education and economic and social justice, and a review of current literature concerning the issues. Specifically, questions are posed that relate to access in two areas: economic issues related to the technology and the culture of those seeking access. The conclusion suggests that a dialog of inquiry is essential if the historic mission of adult education is to remain clear.

Introduction: Engage "Warp-Drive"

In the Star Trek series, when Captain Kirk of the U. S. S. Enterprise (Star Trek) issues the order "Warp-speed Mr. Sulu," the starship instantly hurls itself and the crew to a new destination. The stars and planets become blurred as the ship whizzes along, and the crew's only thought is a quick arrival In a similar way, the recent advances in telecommunications technology that have been embraced at "warp speed" by distance education may be blurring the vision of the social mission of adult education.

Rachal (1989) notes that adult education "has risen as a response to particular needs" (p. 3). Often, particular needs of the people served have encompassed issues of social justice and economic equality (Lindeman, 1926; Heaney, 1996, 1992). In the past, adult educators have responded to educational needs by becoming involved in such movements as the labor union movement, the civil rights movement, the women's rights movement and the environmental movement. Adult educators have been active in local, state and national affairs and with individuals of diverse backgrounds and cultures. Adult education takes place in rural communities, in urban centers, in political arenas, in union halls, in the workplace and in higher education. Freire (1973) has stated that humans have the "critical capacity to make choices and to transform reality" (p. 4). While the goal of adult education has not always been emancipation, adult educators often become the interpreters of the choices that give freedom meaning. Recently, as adult education has begun to embrace the new technologies of distance education, debate has arisen over how choice will be offered and who will be served. For the most part, the work of adult educators has been to assist individuals and groups in obtaining the tools they need to become empowered humans and to make critical choices among those available in a society, whether the society is democratic or not. Embracing distance education may blur the vision of adult education. To keep the vision clear, the social and economic inequities resulting from embracing new technologies must be thoroughly questioned and evaluated if the historic mission of adult education is to continue.

Vision of the Past

The work of adult educators is also related to the recognition of the temporality of human existence. However, when a system values the time of one group over another, it is exploiting and tyrannizing one group in the interests of the other, thus perpetuating a hierarchy of humanity. "In a democratic time culture, everyone's time is valuable and no one's time is any more expendable than

another's" (Rifkin, 1987, p. 227). Thus, when Myles Horton connected the economic disparity of coal miners with a need for education, he began the journey toward the development of Highlander (Adams & Horton, 1975). Horton's ideology and commitment were firmly grounded in a particular place and time. As groups and individuals gained knowledge, Highlander's educators also gained knowledge, matured and responded to new "real-time" needs. Additionally, education for emancipation is also connected to "real-time" needs. For example, the women's movement led to the recognition that woman-battering was a form of social oppression of women. The founders of the Pennsylvania Coalition Against Domestic Violence acknowledged that safety and education were equally important if women who were being battered were to become empowered. Through group interaction and the sharing of experiences of abuse, battered women became educated. Facilitated by formerly battered women, social and economic issues were discussed in relation to women's "real-time" needs. As needs were identified, the leaders in the movement redirected the goals toward coordinated action that benefited all women (Schecter, 1982). Thus, along with meeting immediate needs, education was used to strengthen and support the women in the movement.

While adult education often occurs through group interaction, adult learners have also been said to be self-directed (Knowles, 1980; Long, 1988). Therefore, distance education, a self-directed form of education, has been part of adult education (Moore, 1987; Keegan, 1994; Stammen, 1995). Most often associated with economic opportunity for equality, self-directed adults have used correspondence courses, television programs and a variety of public-access forums for economic and personal enrichment. While these alternatives to traditional educational forms were not always viewed as certifiable or acceptable, they were easily accessed by disenfranchised individuals. Recent advances in telecommunications technology have led to what has been called an educational revolution by educators, educational administrators, and leaders in business and industry (Portway & Lane, 1992; Rossman, 1992; Harusim, 1994; Gates, Myhrvold, & Rinearson, 1996; Teich, 1993). Distance education has been touted as a highly acceptable and accessible alternative education tool.

A World within a World: Distance Education in Adult Education

Kerka (1996) stated that the advances in telecommunications technology meant that anyone could be a potential distance learner. This statement suggested that access to this form of education has become available to everyone. It has significant implications for disenfranchised groups, such as the poor in rural and inner-city areas where access to higher education is difficult to obtain because of geographical and economic hindrances. Another assertion concerning distance education has been that it will determine the future of the town meeting and will reinvigorate democracy (Paving the infoway, 1994). This prediction implies that participatory democracy will be practiced through on-line interaction and teleconferences. Here again, it is assumed that everyone will have access.

On the other hand, Robert C. Johnson(1984) informed black educators that learning laboratories would become home-based and would be linked to databases throughout the world. He warned that such systems would further extend the distance between the haves and the have-nots. He also noted that if this disparity remained unaddressed, the chances of economic survival, be it in a rural or urban environment, would be "almost nil" (p. 282). Postman (1993) shares Johnson's concern when he states that computer technologies have "served to make people believe that technological innovation is synonymous with human progress" (p. 117), and notes that "the computer has strengthened bureaucratic institutions and suppressed the impulse toward significant social change" (p. 116). While Postman saw this tendency as problematic, it cannot be denied that technology, the immediate future, and progress are tied inextricably to economic and social equality

(or inequality). In a capitalist society driven by consumerism, the public has become convinced that technology holds the key to the future.

The academic world has somewhat discussed the effects of technology on the social and economic world; however, there has been little public discussion. Advanced technologies, such as telecommunications technology, seem to be accepted by the public as a matter of course, with few questions or concerns about their impact on the present or the future. However, all technologies are dependent upon human aims and desires; intelligence and social discipline must be used in traffic with them (Mumford, 1934, 1979). This interaction suggests that the uses of technology should be questioned. Jacques Ellul (1990) stated that "technical progress has three kinds of effects: the desired, the foreseen, and the unforeseen" (p. 61). The desired effects of distance education are often stated: ready availability and access to educational resources and materials for the advancement of individual and group education. The foreseen are now being addressed; questions about access issues are manifestations of this inquiry. To provide insight into unforeseen effects, Ellul (1990) suggested that past uses of technology should be reviewed (i.e. television was touted as an educational innovation, but has proven to be a tool of limited use). Adult education values experience, and critical reflection upon experience provides insight (Friere, 1973). If previous experience with technology is any measure, then there will be social and economic effects from the proliferation and embrasure of distance education.

Views from Other Windows

In "The Evaluation of Distance Education: Emerging Technologies and Distributed Learning," Chris Dede (1996) discusses two-way communication, stating some positive aspects that distance education offers. Nevertheless, very little comment has been made about the relativity of cybertime to real-time. Every culture until the introduction of the personal computer age (and the culture it has produced) has been "established primarily around face-to-face interaction" (Rifkin, 1987, p. 27). Other forms of communication have been extensions of this interaction. However, the computer has changed this interaction because it works in a time frame in which the nanosecond is the measurement, rather than the regularity of human perception. In addition, individuals who are systems-literate often "demand brevity and view social discourse in instrumental terms" (Rifkin, 1987, p.26). Moreover, computers do not encourage reflection because of the seeming immediacy of time. Instead, they are merely instruments that convey information between two places. Often these messages are delayed; when the technology breaks down, they are simply lost. Yet, when the messages do arrive, they seem to require immediate attention. This tendency is significant to adult education, because social justice and economic equality are not merely relevant to a specific time and place in human temporal history. They are rooted in past injustices and extend to future issues related to human experiences. Experiences of people are not just bits of information. Additionally, interaction in cyberspace is important in terms of how much information can be gained; therefore, only specific types of experiences are valued. When a learner asks a question, whether in the classroom or boardroom, that question has relevance within the context of the interaction. It has real-time immediacy.

Toward a Clearer Vision

What can education do to assist learners in dealing with the discordance of cybertime and real-time? How can adult education address this inadequacy in on-line communications? What questions should adult educators be asking about access related to time? Should adult educators be concerned about issues of access? Is distance education really accessible to everyone? While

libraries, hospitals and other access facilities may have computers for public use, time allotments will necessarily limit access. Additionally, higher and more exotic technologies are not likely to be available to low-income and minority adult learners. Finally, even where technologies are available, it would be unlikely that the learners would have the knowledge to access them (Lemke, 1992). Thus, the technical skills necessary for learner success is another access issue.

Much of the literature concerning access issues related to distance education suggest that minorities, disadvantaged and inner city individuals, as well as females, handicapped and rural adults, have been unable or have had difficulty accessing computers (Anderson, Welch, & Harris, 1984). In a 1994 survey, the poorest center-city households had the lowest telephone penetration (necessary for a modem link-up), and the rural poor had the lowest computer penetration. Additionally, of the urban and rural poor who had computers, few had modems (Falling through the net, 1995). Meanwhile higher income communities have been redlined (wired for 56Kb lines that are necessary for internet access), while many rural areas have not. Moreover, rural areas that have access through local schools and libraries cannot afford the in-service training for staff (Howley, 1995). In addition to economic access and social and cultural context, technological literacy impacts the issue of access to distance education. Yet, adult educators are making a significant investment in distance education, devoting resources and time to a future that seems to take them further from the struggle for economic and social justice.

A seldom discussed issue in adult education literature concerning distance education is the "fear factor." While many other factors have been discussed, both theoretical and practical, this access issue is often overlooked. In fact, it is often misconstrued or misinterpreted as an issue of choice. However, fear of technology has contributed to the growing gap between the haves and the have-nots, and most noticeably the gap between generations (Teich, 1993). Many individuals who fear technology are not poor or under-educated, nor do they lack the means to access; however, they are under-informed. How can failure to access because of fear be a choice? If my parents are frightened or confused about how to program a VCR or a touch-tone phone in their own home, how much more frightened might they be in accessing a computer at a public library? Should this issue be dismissed? As new technologies arrive, older forms of access will disappear. If individuals are un-informed about new technologies, they become yet another disenfranchised group. Could this be an issue of a media text so foreign that it divides generations of people? What is adult education's responsibility to individuals who fear new technology? Do we even have one?

A result of the division between those with access and those without access is that telecommunications technology has become a factor in obtaining a "good" job. Currently, many employers advertise available positions on-line, and a job search through most state employment services requires basic computer skills. How much longer before distance education becomes a factor in obtaining "high-quality" education? What can adult education do to assist those without access, while avoiding the trap of creating a need as opposed to meeting a need (McKnight, 1995)?

Conclusion: Engage "Impulse-Drive"

When Captain Kirk wants to slow down and take a look around, he orders Mr. Sulu to engage the "impulse-drive." While adult educators have assisted learners in the discovery of the meaning of their experiences, they have also questioned, discussed and reflected upon the practice of adult education. Adult educators now need to slow to "impulse-drive" and take a look at the access issues related to distance education. In the past, adult education was a means for non-represented individuals and disenfranchised groups to become educated, autonomous and a part of the greater community. Toynbee (1991) stated that if education is to be a means of constructive change, then we

must "share out the fruits of technology among the whole of mankind" (p. 95). As long as individuals within groups are measured by what and how they contribute to the whole, shouldn't the vision of adult education remain clear?

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Gaye Ranck Jenkins
R. R. 1 Box 85
Allenwood, PA 17810
gjenkins@csrlink.net

SUSTAINING ACTIVISM: LEARNING ABOUT THE SELF

Jessica T. Kovan

ABSTRACT

In a time period when environmental leaders are being described as discouraged, working with a sense of hopelessness, and questioning their own effectiveness, this study explores what helps committed professionals remain sustained in their work. How do practitioners make sense of their learning experiences? Is their a link between learning about the self and remaining refreshed and sustained in one's work? Findings from this exploratory study of three environmental leaders indicates a link between the ability to learn from experience and the ability to remain committed and passionate to one's work.

Introduction

Kathryn has worked for 20 years in the environmental movement. In her work she recognizes the need to focus on her "inner self" before she can be effective in her professional work. This insight provides her with both "clarity and direction." Applying this to her work, she describes the need to "let the flow of the river take you". As you approach each river bend, you can't stop the flow. Accordingly, rather than continuing to "fight environmental battles," she plans carefully to work with people who can help her move forward in reaching her goals.

Many environmental leaders today are being described as discouraged and working with a sense of hopelessness (Snow 1992a). Why then do some leaders, like Kathryn, when faced with adversity and struggle, not only persist but thrive? What is unique about those who are able to remain committed and passionate about their work - those who are able to surpass burnout? What brings these leaders to work each day refreshed and ready to tackle the day's events?

The issue of staff burnout and high turnover rates among environmental professionals has just begun to get attention in the environmental literature. A recent study of environmental professionals in the Great Lakes region addressed concerns regarding an increase in turnover in many staff and environmental leadership positions in the region (ICL 1996). Leadership was identified as a key issue, calling for strategies to keep current environmental leaders motivated and vital in their work. Similar conclusions have been drawn regarding staff members of environmental organizations throughout the United States.

In a study conducted of personal accounts of environmental leadership, a common thread found was the need for continuous personal and intellectual growth (Berry & Gordon 1993). Yet, many environmental groups are so busy struggling with finances, overbearing work loads, and emotionally exhausted staff that there is little time available to focus on personal growth. Most environmental directors of nonprofit organizations spend less than 2 percent of their time engaged in professional development of any sort (Snow 1992a). Stated reasons for this small focus on professional development include lack of development opportunities and financial resources. Rubin, Adamski and Block (1989) suggest that many of the characteristics needed by nonprofit staff members center on trying to be effective in an environment of limited resources and unlimited need.

For environmental practitioners to achieve their greatest levels of effectiveness, Snow (1992a) suggests they need to be "strong, refreshed, spiritually active, and overwhelmingly positive in their outlook" (p.190). Yet, very little is said about how to help the practitioner achieve this position. To begin to learn more, this study focused on those leaders who, despite many years on the job, continue to remain committed to and passionate about their work.

Methods

An exploratory qualitative study was completed in the fall of 1997. Three purposefully selected women were chosen to be interviewed based on their leadership positions and demonstrated commitment to their work. Kathryn has worked for 20 years in the environmental movement. She is presently leading the regional office of an international environmental organization. Patty has spent the last four years running a small locally-based environmental organization. Ann is the founder and executive director of a national environmental organization. She has been in her position for 15 years.

Data was collected through semi-structured interviews which were informed by critical incident interview techniques. Through this process the interviewees were asked to describe events or circumstances prompting learning which was personally significant to them. Each interview lasted between two to three hours. The interviews were intended to elicited as much information as possible about the personal characteristics, practices, and context involved in each event. Analysis followed the constant comparative method and themes were identified and analyzed. Trustworthiness of data was established and supported through the use of member-checks.

Findings

Analysis of the interview data suggested four themes that tend to characterize or capture the experience of these women in their leadership positions. These are 1) Recognition of multiple paths of learning; 2) The importance of dialogue and a social context in the learning process; 3) The deeply emotional nature of their leaning experiences; and 4) Learning about the self. I will briefly elaborate on each of these themes as they are reflected in the data. Overall, all three women appeared to remain sustained in their work by the ability to continuously learn from their experience.

Multiple Paths of Learning. Through the interviews it became apparent that each woman experienced two different types of learning; the first fitting under the category of instrumental learning and the second being those described by Ann as "changing your soul". Ann suggests, "There are two kinds of learning for me. The first is the kind of learning that occurs all of the time through my daily interactions. It is the "what" answers. The second kind of learning describes the impact, it is the "why" answers." This is the kind that "changes your soul".

Patty also differentiated between learning involving scientific information and learning involving inspiration or personal growth. All three women acknowledged that personal growth seems to come retrospective of the experience which led to the growth. Kathryn recognizes that she grows personally when she lets things come to her without searching for them.

Each woman described learning that "changes your soul" as something that takes a long time to get to but then occurs instantaneously. Each described a situation of not knowing the learning was occurring until finally something clicks. Patty compared this to the game where you try to get all of the balls to drop into their respective holes. When the last ball falls in, you win. She notes, "It takes the last ball in the last hole before it actually feels good. I don't feel 75% of the other balls in the holes. But afterwards I realize that is what happened.... It isn't until the last one falls that I hear the click. Then I change. Then you look back and you realize you were going through some change." Similarly Kathryn suggested "it took failing, failing, failing and all of a sudden it worked." Ann characterized this type of learning as the "ah ha" moment. When the "ah ha" occurs, she described instant recognition and the feeling of surprise.

Dialogue. Pervasive through the interviews was also an importance placed on learning from other people and through discussions with others. Dialogue appeared to provide a context to reflect upon experiences. Kathryn noted that "talking sets a stage for learning to occur". During the interview, each participant remarked that they were learning about themselves via our discussion. Patty suddenly declared in the middle of the interview, "We are doing it. We are learning!" In discussing her discontent being the sole staff person for over two years until an additional staff was hired, she remarked, "I needed a sounding board ... it was me talking to me ... I didn't have anyone to bounce things off of and that's how I learn." She described her need to be surrounded by people in order to learn. In a similar vein, Kathryn described a difficult time when she felt incompetent. She realized she needed to learn to work with others and this interaction allowed her to "find the door rather than continually walking into walls." All three women described situations of working alone as painful. Ann points out, "I need interaction. I need things that will give my emotions a boost. I need to feel the experience, to go more into depth. This is how I learn..."

Emotions. In all of these situations, strong emotions corresponded to the learning process. A continuum of emotions was described with experiences of discontent eventually leading to moments of joy, excitement, and a "renewed commitment to my work." When asked to characterize a situation where they learned, each women related experiences of anguish and distress prior to the learning. Kathryn noted the past two years had been the most difficult two years of her life. Patty expressed that she had been severely depressed about her work prior to gaining a stronger understanding of her needs in the workplace. Ann described the time period leading up to "one of the most growing professional experiences I had" as "one of the most painful experiences I have gone through." Discontent and tension seemed to be pervasive prior to a personally significant learning experience.

The emotions described after a key learning experience were on the opposite end of the continuum to those prior to the event. The interviewees chose words such as admiration, compassion, liberating, honest, comfortable, excitement, gratitude and humbling to describe the emotions they experienced at learning something that was personally significant. Ann's comment, "I felt great joy and happiness, I floated for weeks" seemed to embody the emotions that were experienced.

Learning About the Self. The type of learning described by the interviewees appeared to entail a process of learning about the self. When Patty discovered she held inaccurate assumptions about others' opinions and about herself, she describes this moment as " big!" She felt herself change. She likened this process to what occurs in nature. "You have to have decay before you can have new growth and I think that is exactly what happened. My old ideas just died. They had to for the new growth to happen." Now when she feels this going on she makes the assumption that, "something is being planted in me, something's growing. It is very healthy for me. It helps me get through the bad times a little bit more now."

Kathryn's use of the analogy of a river and letting "the river flow" has taught her to search for the balance between persistence and letting go. Understanding the need for this balance has provided her with both "clarity and direction." She notes that this could not have been taught to her by others. She personally "had to go through the agony." She strongly advocates the need to work "on your inner self" before being effective in your professional work.

Discussion

Does learning about the self play a role in the ability of environmental practitioners to remain committed to their work? The findings from this exploratory study suggest that there is a connection between learning about the self and the enthusiasm these three environmental leaders feel about their work. Each of the women interviewed found a way to learn from experience. This learning enabled them to go from such emotions as inner turmoil to elation and to apply this to the confidence they felt in their work.

A basic assumption in adult education is the close linkage between personal growth and learning. Through this, adult learning and experience are also seen as inextricably linked (Merriam 1994), with attention and reflection being a necessary ingredient to transform experience into learning (Dewey 1938, Kolb 1984, Jarvis 1987, Mezirow 1991). In addition, Merriam and Clark (1991) have found that for learning experiences to be significant they need to both personally affect the learner and be subjectively valued by the learner. The connection between learning and commitment, however, may be a two way street. Those individuals who have a high level of commitment to their work may be more open to learning, and those that are able to learn from their experiences may be better able to sustain their commitment. The data from this exploratory study suggests a connection between self-knowledge, learning, and commitment.

Transformative learning theory, a process of reflecting on experiences to examine, question, validate, and revise perceptions (Cranton 1994) seems to partially explain the similar patterns of learning which emerged. Components of the transformative process were found in all of the interviews. A critical part of transformative learning involves the assessment or reassessment of assumptions. "Reflective learning becomes transformative whenever assumptions or premises are found to be distorting, unauthentic, or otherwise invalid" (Mezirow, 1991, p.6). Mezirow (1991) writes, "Rather than merely adapting to changing circumstances by more diligently applying old ways of learning, [adults] discover a need to acquire new perspectives in order to gain a more complete understanding of changing events" (p.3). This approach corresponds well with what was found in the interviews. Each practitioner described situations of realizing that their assumptions were inaccurate. Daley (1997) has found that disorienting dilemmas, critical reflection, and the identification of assumptions are key components of transformative learning theory when linked to practice. All of these components could be found within the stories told by Kathryn, Ann and Patty.

While building on and being critical of transformative learning, Taylor (1997) points out an over-reliance on rationality within Mezirow's theory. Intuition, affective learning, the guiding force of feelings and the more subjective elements of relationships (trust, friendship, support) all have been shown to have an impact on transformative learning which has been overlooked by Mezirow. These less rational ways of knowing arose also in this study of environmental practitioners. Ann and Kathryn strongly used metaphors to describe their ways of thinking and learning. These metaphors appeared to help them to better understand what they were experiencing. Patty suggested the use of connected ways of knowing as a way she learns. In describing how she makes meaning of something, she states, "The thing I want is to get it out there, to share it with other people. It makes it more real for me. If I can't share it with anybody, it ceases to be very important". All three individuals described the importance of relationships in their learning about themselves, as well as the power of dialogue as part of how they reflect and learn.

The research of Daloz, Keen, Keen and Park (1996) on individuals working toward the common good begins to illuminate ways to further think about the linkage between learning about the self and sustaining commitment. This type of learning appears to provide a bridge between what is going on in the external world and what is occurring within the individual. The importance of this

connection is underscored by their finding that when "the ability to entertain internal counterpoint is poorly developed or wanes for whatever reason, when some voices are suppressed and others amplified, burnout or destructive behavior is most likely to occur" (p.190). They found that those who remain sustained in their commitments are those who are able to cultivate a stance of conscious awareness of life while also acknowledging one's limitations to oneself and others. An important "habit of the mind" they describe is the ability to acknowledge, reflect upon and give voice to all parts of one's inner conversation. In this same vein, Thomashow's (1995) work on ecological identity explores how personal introspection drives one's commitment to environmentalism. He emphasizes the need to help individuals reflect on how their environmentalism influences all portions of their lives, hence, providing guidance for professional and personal choices. Specifically looking at learning, Scott (1992) found that both instrumental knowledge and transformative learning experiences were necessary for social activists to feel empowered.

Conclusion

Does learning play a role in the ability of committed individuals to remain refresh and passionate about their work? What does this learning encompass? How does is occur? Is there a role for adult education in this process? All three women in this study tended to take a transformative stance toward their life and work. As environmental activists, their work provides an important means of learning for them, as well as providing a strong sense of identity. The two go hand in hand. Through their work they have found opportunities for deep learning and growth. When Patty discovered her opinions about the environment were not representative of the general public, she realized she had always thought of herself as having "The Knowledge with a capital K" and that people would listen to her. When she recognized this wasn't true, she saw herself differently and learned from it.

This exploratory study suggests a strong need to look at how to frame professional development experiences for environmental leaders that will foster and nurture transformative stances toward their work. At the same time, by recognizing and validating the emotions, challenges, and learning that is occurring in the workplace, these leaders can gain insight into their daily lives as well as others working in their profession. With a better understanding of what helps maintain the vitality of environmental professionals; universities, professional development organizations, foundations and nonprofit organizations can work together to provide the atmosphere, support, and education necessary to help sustain the commitment of those working for the common good.

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Jessica T. Kovan, Dept. of Educational Administration, Erickson Hall, Michigan State University, E. Lansing, MI, kovanjes@pilot.msu.ed

WHAT I LEARNED ABOUT CHANGE I LEARNED IN PRACTICE, NOT FROM THE LITERATURE.

Donald J. Kreitzer

ABSTRACT

The different theories of change used to prepare adult and community education students for practice are linear and two-dimensional and fall short of describing change in today's organizational environment. The truth is, change just isn't the same anymore. This paper examines some of the literature on change, provides a discussion on today's organizational change environment, and describes how learning and communication in an organizational environment impact change.

Change Theory

Change (The American Heritage Dictionary, 1976) is the process or condition of changing; alteration or modification; transformation. Kurt Lewin (1951) argued that the process of change involved three basic phases: unfreezing, changing, and refreezing. The first phase, unfreezing, begins when a situation is recognized as being different, deficient, or inadequate in some way. The second phase, changing, occurs when a new system or plan is implemented. The third phase, refreezing, occurs when newly created processes or patterns of behavior and techniques become part of an organization. Lewin further explains, in what is known as Force Field Analysis, that the change process begins as a result of competition between driving and restraining forces. As change occurs, some forces drive change and some forces resist change. As the restraining forces are reduced or eliminated, an organization's behavior will shift and incorporate the desired change, thus refreezing. Lewin's model of change describes how organizations look at and respond to continuous change.

Many authors discuss grieving as the process by which people deal with change. One such process suggests three phases: shock, despair, and recovery. Another suggests a four stage process: denial, anger, plea-bargaining, and acceptance. Yet another suggests four phases: denial, resistance, adaptation, and involvement. While there are differences in the descriptors used to describe the phases of grief, there seems to be little disagreement on the effects grieving has on an individual or group. Boyd (1991) reports that during periods of transition, like change, a group's ability to solve problems, make decisions, and plan for the future is seriously jeopardized. The fact that organizations are made up of multiple groups at multiple levels compounds the problems associated with change and adds complexity to individual, group, and organizational grieving.

In Lewin's model, as well as other models, organizational change is driven primarily by planning and decision making. Leaders of organizations strain their collective brains on how best to change the organization to meet their planned organizational strategic objectives. Actions are planned. Learning interventions are created and delivered. Events and communications are planned as a means of facilitating the grieving process. Together, these planned actions and learning hopefully bring about the intended change.

Organizational Change Today

Models of change theory describe organizational change as a process of freezing, unfreezing, and freezing again. This notion of change and change management allows for

organizational development to occur as a planned event. However, in today's environment, there are two basic categories of change: continuous and discontinuous (Nadler, 1998).

Continuous, or incremental, change goes on constantly, or at least it should. Continuous change is planned improvement in process, products, and performance and involves large commitments of people, time, and money. Much of this change is embodied in the quality improvement or continuous improvements efforts of an organization. This is the category of change most often described in literature and explained by Lewin's model, for example.

Discontinuous, or radical, change is more often than not driven by external forces, such as global markets, more players, more products, and new technology. Discontinuous change is messy, especially if organizations find they can not respond to the change. The demand for organizational change has accelerated at an extraordinary rate in recent years (Nadler, 1998). Emerging technologies and changing markets sweep through organizations at an ever increasing rate. Customers are quickly learning to expect more, better, quicker. An organization's desire to meet these challenges will lead to a chaotic condition of change if not well-managed.

Discontinuous change is chaos-like. According to Daft (1994), the science of chaos theory reveals the existence of randomness and disorder within larger patterns of order. This means that day-to-day organizational events are random and unpredictable. Chaos theory, then, is a paradigm shift away from the belief that organizational leaders can predict and control events and toward a philosophy that the organization must become fluid, adaptable, and stay connected to their customers. Managers will become less concerned with detailed planning and control and more concerned with facilitating teams and emerging ontological patterns.

Daft (1994) suggests a number of tactics that leaders and managers can use during times of change: communication, learning, participation, negotiation, and coercion. Two of those tactics that are key are communication and learning. He suggests that both communication and learning are used when solid information about change is needed by users and others who may resist change. Communication is an essential tool for accomplishing change (D'Aprix, 1996).

Learning in Changing Organizations

Change swirls around organizations and their leaders these days and the change is likely to increase in intensity, complexity, and ambiguity (Apps, 1994). There are new demands, new pressures and new expectations for organizations and their leaders. Charles Handy (1989) affirms this position when he writes, "Discontinuous change requires discontinuous upside-down thinking to deal with it, even if both the thinker and thoughts appear absurd at first sight." Because of discontinuous change, many organizations today are in a crisis mode and struggling to maintain operations. In many cases, deciding how and when to change is not an option. In other words, change drives actions and learning. For organizational development, discontinuous change suggests that people need to take action and learn concurrently as a result of change. In today's organizations, the need to respond to discontinuous change greatly reduces the likelihood of organizational development activities being planned activities. In this environment, traditional training functions and programs either appear to be or are ineffective. Additionally, developing the staff that is responsible for developing others within the organization becomes extremely complex in the discontinuous change environment. One organizational solution, and a growing one at that, is to eliminate the internal training staff and outsource the needed organizational learning interventions to outside vendors.

Action learning shares much in common with action research, a term first coined by Kurt Lewin in the 1940s. According to Weisbord (1987), Lewin intended his enhanced problem-

solving model to preserve values, build commitment for action, and motivate learning all at once. This notion, when purposefully planned, suggests a natural link between action learning and the development of "learning organizations." The central goal of action learning (Dilworth, 1998) is to increase the capacity of individual learners and the learning of the organizations they are associated with to adapt to a rapidly changing environment.

Serendipity (The American Heritage Dictionary, 1976) is defined as making fortunate and unexpected discoveries by accident. Discontinuous change generates unexpected problems. Solving those problems through action and learning for the purpose of preserving values provides discontinuous discoveries. These experiential discoveries then, that result from unplanned learning by doing by learning, can best be described as serendipitous action learning. Such writers as, Knowles (1980), Freire (1970), Jarvis (1987), and Mezirow (1981) have expressed the importance of experience in their theories of learning in adulthood. So learning, during times of discontinuous change, takes place whether it is guided or not. This might explain why some organizations succeed in spite of themselves. Key then, is to guide the actions and learning of individuals and groups as a means of facilitating change. The Dotlich and Noel (1998) model for change, Actions + Learning = Change, explains this perspective of guiding actions and learning as a means of facilitating change.

Communication for Organizational Change

When the learning activity has no value to the learner, even when the activities are well planned, learners will quickly disengage mentally from the activity. Merriam and Caffarella (1991) support this notion by indicating that unless learning activities are interesting, practical, and relevant for the learner, the learner might disengage. These same barriers to learning have been noted by Darkenwald and Merriam (1982) and Long (1983), among others.

Key to ensuring relevance is effective and timely communication. The words "effective" and "timely" are at the heart of this discussion. Several authors, Nadler (1998) for one, suggest that communication must be effective, occur often, and provide information. Leaders of organizations often draft communications that target the entire organization by sending memos or using an in-house company paper to convey their message. They may communicate often, but is it effective? The communication may be informative, but does it facilitate the grieving process?

For the purpose of this discussion, the following descriptors are used to describe the phases of grief: betrayal, denial, identity crisis, and search for solutions. As mentioned earlier, people move through a grieving process when affected by change. Since people are different, each having their own reality, it stands to reason that each person or group would move through the grieving process at a different rate. For the sake of simplicity and this discussion, the organization portrayed in the example has three groups of people: upper management, middle management, and workers. Whether the change is continuous or discontinuous, it is usually upper management who first know that change will occur. This means that they, as a group, start through the grieving process first. As time passes, middle management is brought on board. Then later, the workers learn about the change. As a result, different groups are in different phases of grief at the same time. Figure 1. below suggests that by the time upper management is in the Searching for Solutions phase, the middle management group is moving from the Denial phase into the Identity Crisis phase, and the workers, just hearing that change is taking place, are entering the Betrayal phase. At this time, upper management communication tends to be inspirational. But, is inspirational communication enough to build relevance and facilitate change? D'Aprix (1996) indicates that communication is a tool frequently used poorly and thoughtlessly and the degree to

which it is used poorly worsens the situation thus making people even more resistant to change.

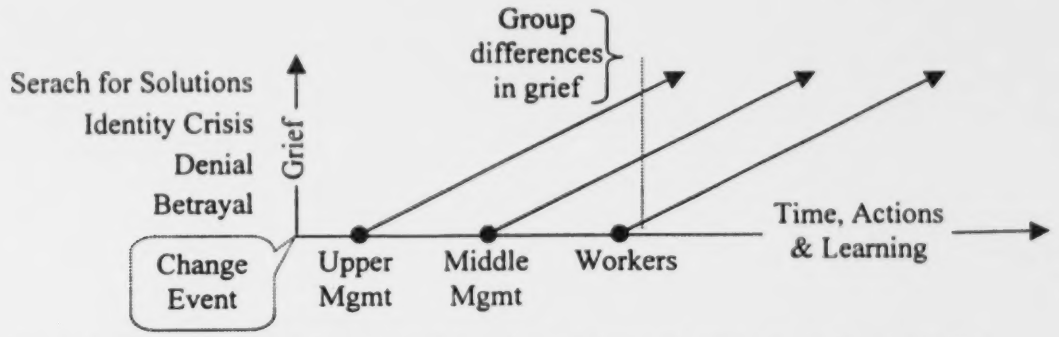

Figure 1. Groups move through grief at different times given a single change event.

Natural communication gaps exist in the change process. If those gaps are not recognized and managed effectively, the scope and duration of productivity loss caused by change will intensify. O'Hair and Friedrich (1992) suggest that effective communication needs to be informative. The fact is, communication about change needs to be adjusted for each of the

Phases of Grief	Symptom	Communication Solution
1. Betrayal	Shock and Disbelief	Informative
2. Denial	Disbelief and Suffering	Informative
3. Identity Crisis	Suffering and Anger	Supportive
4. Search for Solutions	Anger and Resolution	Inspirational

Table 1. Types of communication needed for each phase of grief.

phases of grief. Table 1. suggests a communication solution for each phase of grief. That is, individuals, or groups, need different types information during each of the phases of grief. This suggests that any official organizational communication about change should be informative, supportive, as well as inspirational. Additionally, this model suggests that if the phase of grief is known, communication for that particular group could be targeted.

Summary

For most of us, the literature on change reads a lot like evolution, a gradual process that has a series of beginnings and ends. Change in today's business environment is far from gradual or continuous. Change is: discontinuous, chaotic, random, real, changing, and now. In fact, quantum mechanics and chaos theory from the hard sciences go further in describing the nature of today's organizational change than do theories from the soft sciences. The gap that exists between the soft science literature on change and change itself is widening. This widening gap also calls into question current teaching methods and materials on change theory.

Many organizations, operated for profit or not, are changing in ways that many people have difficulty comprehending. New kinds of organizations are emerging, and as a result, new

kinds of leaders will emerge to lead in ways different from those who we have known in the past (Apps, 1994). In today's environment, emerging leaders not only have the task of redefining their own profession, but the professions of those they lead. As a way of shifting from detailed planning and control to facilitating groups and emerging ontological patterns, organizational leaders may want to look at change in the following way:

Communication - Organizational leaders need to understand the types of communication needed to impact the different phases of grief.

Hierarchy - Understanding the organizational structure will aid in defining the means and methods of communicating.

Action learning - Linking actions and learning to the problems associated with change provides relevance for the learner.

Needs - The human need for self-esteem and self-actualization cannot be over stated. Motivation and personality theories need to be understood.

Grieving - Change creates a feeling of loss as people are required to give up old behaviors. Individuals need to understand grief before they can manage grief.

Evaluation - Changing human behavior is at the heart of the change process, therefore, evaluating at the behavioral level is a must.

One of the consistent themes of the Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference is linking research to practice. This assumes, of course, that a research topic and the resulting practice have something in common other than a name. The gap between the research on change and the change that adult education practitioners experience, discontinuously widens. In short, current change theory provide the historical perspective of continuous change. This indicates opportunities for future research, that is, research on discontinuous change.

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Donald J. Kreitzer; Director, Education & Development
Lincoln Life; 1300 S. Clinton Street (1A01); Fort Wayne, IN 46801-1110
219-455-7349 (office)
djkreitzer@lnc.como

THE IMPACT OF WELFARE REFORM ON THE DELIVERY OF ADULT LITERACY INSTRUCTION

Larry G. Martin
James C. Fisher

ABSTRACT

Given the percent of welfare recipients who are considered low-literate (i.e., nearly 50%), the new welfare initiative with its emphasis on employment relevant education has ushered in a new era of literacy programming. This paper examines the impact of welfare reform legislation and workforce development initiatives in transforming the delivery of literacy services to low literate adults. The following areas of reform and subsequent impact are discussed: federal and state policy initiatives that drive the transformation of adult literacy, theory and research that inform welfare-to-work, curricular approaches to adult literacy programming, and new skills for literacy educators.

Introduction

Welfare reform became the focus of a national initiative when President Clinton signed into law, the "Personal Responsibility and Work Opportunity Reconciliation Act of 1996" (Public Law 104-193). The legislation cites as the impetus for the law: the "crisis in our nation" involving the increases in out-of-wedlock pregnancy and the concomitant effects of single parenthood for teenage mothers (Public Law 104-193). The following effects of teenage parenthood were cited as problematic: long-term welfare dependancy; low birth weight babies; school noncompletion; absentee fathers; school failure by children; children with lower cognitive scores, lower educational aspirations, and a greater likelihood of becoming single parents; more likelihood of living in neighborhoods that experience higher rates of crime; and greater likelihood of being involved in crime and being placed in the juvenile justice system. Therefore, the ultimate targets of this welfare reform legislation is not the parents (i.e., the clients of adult literacy programs) but the children of those adults who may be targeted for adult literacy services. The legislation seeks to improve the plight of children born in poverty via assisting and demanding that parents become more personally responsible.

The new welfare initiative, with its emphasis on employment relevant education will require literacy practitioners to radically transform their mental models of "how" and "why" literacy programs should be designed and delivered. This paper examines the impact of welfare reform legislation and workforce development initiatives in transforming the delivery of literacy services to low literate adults. The following topics are addressed: policy issues that drive the transformation of adult literacy; theory and research that inform welfare-to-work, curricular approaches to adult literacy programming, and new skills for literacy educators.

Policy Issues that Drive the Transformation of Adult Literacy

The new welfare reform legislation created the Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF) block grant program. The TANF program replaces several former programs that constituted a social safety net for poor families: AFDC, Emergency Assistance, and the Job Opportunity and Basic Skills (JOBS) program.

Using block grants of federal money, the TANF program passes control over the welfare system to the states. Within the guidelines stipulated in the law, states are now primarily

responsible for designing their own replacements for welfare with the goal of unsubsidized work for recipients. Relevant aspects of these guidelines include the following: cash assistance to individual heads of households will be limited to no more than five years over the course of their lifetime (up to 20% of the state's case load can be exempted from this limit), and able-bodied adults will be required to work within two years; individuals may not receive TANF-funded vocational education for more than 12 months; states must meet escalating targets for caseload participation in approved work activities; beginning July 1, 1997, 25% of the caseload must be participating in work activities (Public Law 104-193).

To qualify for work, recipients must participate in one or more of the following: unsubsidized or subsidized employment, on-the-job training, work experience, community service, up to 8 months of vocational education, or provide child care services to individuals who are participating in community service. Beyond 20 hours per week (30 for two-parent families) participating may also include: job skills training related to employment, education directly related to employment (for recipients lacking a diploma or GED), and secondary school or GED preparation.

Excluding teens, enrollment in vocational education that can be counted toward mandated work participation targets is limited to 30% of the number of individuals participating in approved work activities each month. States have the authority to define "vocational education," "community service," and what counts as "work." In addition, a total of $3 billion in federal welfare-to-work block grants will be provided to states over three years (75% through PICs, i.e., Private Industry Councils, and 25% through competitive grants via DOL, i.e., the Department of Labor). Priority populations include: adults who lack a GED or have low literacy or math skills; and individuals with substance abuse problems. These funds will be used to assist long-term welfare recipients in finding and retaining jobs.

The new legislation has also redefined workforce development in most states. Although a primary goal of welfare reform is increasing work participation among welfare recipients, many states have chosen one of two approaches: Work-First (or Labor Force Attachment) vs. Human Capital Development (HCD). One year after the legislation was implemented, 21 states required work within less than 24 months of assistance, and 11 states required immediate work (Kaplan, 1998). The "work-first" orientation is designed to place people into jobs quickly, therefore, those recipients who are "job ready" are immediately placed into employment. The philosophy behind this approach is that welfare recipients can build work habits and skills best by being in the workplace. Full-time education and training is not acceptable and education and training programs should prepare participants for entry level employment. Therefore, traditional literacy programs are a low priority. Welfare recipients are directed to participate in learning programs, e.g., Job Assessment, Job-Readiness/Motivation Training, Job Skills Training, Driver Education, Counseling, On-the-Job Training, Employment Search, Job Development, and others that more effectively assist them in meeting the employment requirements of local employers. Any training must be tied directly to jobs obtainable after brief preparation, e.g., food preparation and nursing assistant positions (Kaplan, 1998).

The "human capital development" orientation is designed to prepare recipients for work by improving their basic skill level (Hamilton, Brock, Farrell, Friedlander, & Harknett, 1997). The philosophy behind this approach is that basic education as a precursor to work will assist low literate adults to meet the rising skill levels which many jobs demand and will result in higher paying and more secure jobs, thereby allowing full independence from government assistance.

For states pursuing this approach, enrollment in high school completion programs and some college degree programs remain an option.

Another major component of the workforce development initiative are Job Centers (i.e., one stop centers which provide a array of services in one location) that have been created to facilitate transitioning welfare recipients through training into jobs. In several states, all welfare recipients are required to enroll in these centers. Job seekers spend six to eight weeks going through the center training process, which includes case management, orientation, assessment, job counseling, career planning, support services, basic skills training, and job preparation.

Theory and Research That Inform Welfare-to-Work

Considerable evidence exists which links low educational skill with low economic status and unemployment. Welfare recipients generally have low education skills; nearly half of adults on welfare do not have a high school diploma or GED. Recipients' level of educational skill is correlated with length of time on welfare, i.e., welfare recipients with low education skills stay on welfare the longest, while those with stronger education skills become self-sufficient more quickly. The education level of welfare recipients is closely linked to their income level, i.e., adults with low literacy skills earn the least, and as literacy skills improve, average weekly wages of welfare recipients increase (National Institute for Literacy, 1994). This understanding of a linkage between economic dependency and low literacy led to the JOBS program (Job Opportunities and Basic Skills Training Program); it required states to make educational services available to welfare recipients, based on the assumption that welfare recipients were not well prepared to enter the work force (Cohen, et al, 1994).

However, evaluation studies of employment and training programs synthesized by Cohen and others (1994) concluded that there was little evidence to connect participation in adult basic education and literacy programs with gains in economic self-sufficiency among welfare participants. Cohen explains that traditional approaches in literacy training have been ineffective with welfare recipients. Others (Chisman and Woodward, 1992; Pauly, Long, & Martinson, 1992) support the call for a literacy program redesign. Conversely, Reder and Wikeland (1994) measured gains in literacy scores among Career and Life Planning students. Literacy appeared to be significantly associated with reductions in future dependence on public assistance. These authors concluded that their clients viewed basic skills improvement as integral to their overall personal growth. And others (Catalfamo, 1998) have insisted that the expectations for literacy achievement in the JOBS legislation were unrealistic and therefore bound to fail.

Some efforts to compare the effectiveness of the "work-first" vs. the "human capital development" approaches have resulted in research findings. Strawn (1997) for example found that neither approach resulted in long-term effectiveness in increasing participants' earnings and job tenure. He concluded that "the most effective welfare-to-work programs share a balanced approach that mixes job search, education, job training, and paid and unpaid work experience" (p. 2). Hamilton and others (1997), gathering data at sites in three states, reported the following findings:

1. The "work-first approach" most significantly increased participation in job search while the "human capital" programs most notably increased participation in adult basic education (not college). Further, the "human capital" programs were likely to increase the percentage of participants who obtained a high school diploma or GED certificate.
2. Both approaches increased individuals' two-year cumulative employment and earnings.

Cumulative employment and earnings impacts over the two-year period were smaller for the human capital than for the work-first approaches.

3. For those possessing a high school diploma or GED certificate at the start of the study, AFDC savings and increases in earnings were achieved by both program approaches. For those who entered the study without these educational credentials, the work-first approach produced greater earnings.

One might question whether a two year study period places premature closure on program results, noting that positive results are more quickly achieved from the work-first approach, but that the longer term consequences of participation in educational programs with respect to earnings and job security are unknown.

Curricular Approaches to Adult Literacy Programming

The demands for employment relevance comes with a value judgment which implies that school-taught (, i.e., "academic") knowledge is not a legitimate means to assist learners in the acquisition of job-related skills. These observations have prompted an increasing number of literacy providers to embrace both situated and integrated approaches to literacy and occupational skills training in efforts to improve literacy instruction, knowledge retention, and students' motivation. This transition from the more traditional "academic" approach represents a significant change not only in the philosophical orientation to teaching literacy skills, but in the entire scope of designing, implementing and evaluating the literacy effort.

Academic Approach--This approach suggests that it is important to develop the generalized knowledge and skills of recipients. It places a premium on "symbol manipulation" where the learner is encouraged to master symbolic rules of various kinds (Resnick, 1987). Instructional objectives, course materials, and class instruction are organized around the identification, manipulation, and mastery of symbols, e.g., letters, words, numbers, formulas, etc., that are abstractions from contextual situations. In addition, academic programs also value the learner's ability to think independently, without the aid of physical and cognitive tools, e.g., notes, calculators, etc., (Resnick, 1987).

However, there is mounting evidence that academic programs may be inappropriate for those welfare recipients who have low levels of literacy skills. For example, Friedlander and Martinson (1996) conducted an experimentally designed evaluation study of 33,000 GAIN (Greater Avenues for Independence)--mandatory AFDC program recipients in five California counties. They found that welfare recipients were highly unlikely to voluntarily enroll in ABE or GED classes as opposed to those required as a condition of their stipend. Only 8.4% of a control group attended versus 43.6% of a program group. Over fifty percent of the program group had their participation postponed at least once, and nineteen percent had sanctioning initiated for noncompliance with a program requirement. They reported that program participants sometimes saw education, i.e., without specific job training, as unlikely to lead to a worthwhile job.

Situated Learning--Also called "situated cognition," and "context-based" approaches to teaching and learning. This approach advances three strong arguments that call for education and learning programs to be situated in context specific environments: First, knowledge is "constructed" and it does not transfer between tasks. Much of what a student learns is specific to the situation in which the learning occurs. Therefore, to be truly skillful in a functional context, learners must develop situation-specific forms of competence. Second, learning is inherently a

socially shared phenomenon (Resnick, 1987), i.e., occurring in complex social situations (e.g., work, family, etc.). This perspective recognizes that in out-of-school learning situations most mental activities are engaged intimately with knowledge tools, (e.g., calculators, templates, procedural rules, and others) and knowledge sources (e.g., other role players in the situation). Therefore, learners should be allowed to utilize the knowledge tools and sources found in typical work environments and they should be required to display their skills in complex workplace situations. Third, action is situationally grounded, i.e., the potentialities for action cannot be fully described independently of the specific situation.

Integrated Programs--These programs attempt to integrate basic skills (academic) preparation with functionally meaningful content. In preparing welfare recipients for success in the workplace, training on the cues that signal the relevance of a job-related skill should probably receive more emphasis in instruction than it typically receives in academic programs. Abstract instruction combined with concrete examples can be a powerful instructional method. This method is especially important when learning must be applied to a wide variety of frequently unpredictable future tasks.

New Skills for Literacy Educators

In the new era of welfare reform and workforce development literacy practitioners (i.e., teachers and administrators) will need to acquire a new and different skills-set to successfully navigate the transition from a provider of pre-employment academic learning programs to a provider of short-term educational programs that successfully integrates academic skills and occupational knowledge. The skills-sets required (i.e., collaborative program design, development and implementation of literacy programs before and after employment; ability to design develop and conduct broad-based and inclusive needs assessments; ability to develop and implement program evaluations; identifying, negotiating with, and managing stake holders, etc.) will define the hiring and staff development agenda for literacy practitioners.

One catch-phase that captures one of the primary skill needs of literacy practitioners is "stake holder management." To provide programs to address the multiple needs of welfare recipients who are not necessarily job-ready, literacy programmers should consider the interests and needs of several groups of individuals and organizations that have a stake in the success of efforts to place welfare recipients in jobs and to maintain their continuing education activities. They include the following: *State Sponsored Adult Basic Education* (ABE), *Adult Secondary Education* (ASE), and *English as a Second Language* (ESL) programs; *Community-Based Organizations* (CBOs); *Local Job Centers* (i.e., one-stop shops); *Support Services Agencies* (e.g., the PIC, local literacy coalition(s), and others); *Private and Public Employers*; *Payers* (e.g., the Department of Health and Human Services (DHSS) or the Department of Workforce Development in Wisconsin); *Clients* e.g., Current Students (welfare recipients), Potential Students (current welfare recipients), and Former Welfare Recipients (who are employed, but still require literacy skill development and continuing education). Literacy providers that can successfully manage the complex and diverse needs and interests of these stake holders, and develop the requisite skills among their teachers, administrators, and staff will be the providers of choice for both their clients, and other stake holders.

Conclusion

National welfare reform has ushered in a new era of literacy programming for adult literacy practitioners, particularly those in states implementing a "work-first" orientation. Regardless of the approach chosen by a given state, recipients will require literacy programs that effectively assists them to gain immediate employment. They will also need to gain confidence in their abilities to learn and to develop a deep and abiding passion for learning. These attributes will motivate them to continue to learn once they have found employment. As indicated in the above discussion, all of the above curricular approaches to literacy programming offer some appealing attributes to assist welfare recipients in the transition from welfare-to-work. The particular shape of the most successful literacy programs will vary by state and will depend upon the reform policies that have been adopted. Research investigations into the appropriate "mix" of program approaches to effectively address the long-term learning needs of welfare recipients are required before committing limited resources to a particular approach. In addition, literacy practitioners will need to assess the skills-sets of their instructors, administrators, and staffs in order to align them with the programming requirements of the new era.

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References will be provided upon request.

Larry G. Martin, Associate Professor, Department of Administrative Leadership, University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, P.O. Box 413, Milwaukee, WI 53201. lmartin@uwm.edu

James C. Fisher, Associate Professor, Department of Administrative Leadership, University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, P.O. Box 413, Milwaukee, WI 53201. jcfisher@uwm.edu

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CO-CREATING KNOWLEDGE: A COLLABORATIVE INQUIRY INTO COLLABORATIVE INQUIRY

Craig A. Mealman and Randee Lipson Lawrence

This study illuminates the power and potential of collaborative inquiry for creating and extending knowledge. By exploring and giving meaning to our own collaborative process, we uncover and understand ways in which knowledge is co-created through collaborative effort.

Introduction

The decision to collaborate in research often comes out of a shared history and mutual passion. In order to channel the passion into creative energy, each co-inquirer must be willing to give up, put on hold or negotiate predetermined conceptual notions. We have found that the actual direction of the inquiry may indeed shift as a result of this process of developing "shared" passion. Sharing the passion often means co-creating something new which is based in a specific area or topic of mutual passion, which could not have been known prior to the onset of the project.

Prior to working on this inquiry, we had been associated as colleagues in a major university for over a decade. It is through work related tasks that we became acquainted with each other's interests and styles of working in an academic environment. For example, we both share interests in collaborative learning with cohort groups, in experiential and transformative learning and in outdoor and environmental education. We have co-presented at several conferences, have co-facilitated workshops and co-taught in graduate adult education programs. Because both of us have strong interests in collaborative learning, we have sought each others' insight about issues that surface around teaching in cohort learning groups. Additionally, we both have ongoing research interests related to learning in cohorts (Lawrence, 1996 and Mealman, 1991).

When a colleague suggested that we consider writing about collaborative inquiry, we began to further explore the collaborative processes that undergird our work. That suggestion was a jumping off point for what became an extensive ongoing area of substantive inquiry.

Methodology

A primary purpose of collaborative inquiry is to deepen the understanding of one's experience, to gain an understanding of and from fellow inquirers, and together to develop new understanding of some shared phenomena. Our methodology draws on phenomenology: deepening our level of consciousness through seeing, intuiting and reflecting upon our everyday lived experiences, heuristic research: "a research approach which encourages an individual to discover, and methods which enable him to investigate further by himself," (Moustakas, 1981 p. 207) and participatory research: "Inquiry as a means by which people engage together to explore some significant aspect of their lives, to understand it better and to transform their actions so as to meet their purposes more fully." (Reason, 1994 p.1).

Because we were investigating our own process, we used dialogue, or deep critical conversation as our primary data collection method. Throughout this dialogue process, ideas emerged, were articulated, shared, listened to, responded to, built upon, challenged, re-thought, clarified, validated, changed and expanded. In the end a mutual understanding was reached. This process was not always harmonious. Indeed some of our most creative thinking emerged out of dissonance. In collaborative inquiry it is not enough to share and discuss our experiences and have them validated by others. At times our understanding of our experiences is deepened through critical engagement with collaborators. This may take the form of asking critical questions of one another, testing assumptions or offering alternative interpretations. We have discovered that certain interpersonal communication processes such as devoting time to listening to each other's stories, (Group for Collaborative Inquiry, 1993), and supporting one another's personal growth even when it seems to be only peripherally relating to advancing the inquiry, as well as engaging in "focused hearing" such as listening deeply (Lawrence and Mealman, 1996), expands the possibilities and adds richness to the inquiry.

The time and space where our dialogues occur is also significant. We are aware of other collaborators who have spent extended time at a retreat setting to immerse themselves in their work (Kasl, Dechant and Watkins, 1993; Brookfield, personal communication, 1998). While we have not had the opportunity for such an experience, we have found that prolonged conversations in certain settings seem to provide space for maximum creativity. Many of our dialogues have taken place in coffee houses, on park benches and in the clock tower of our university building.

In our data collection and analysis, we often use presentational methods (Heron, 1996) such as metaphor, storytelling, drawing, photographs and music to communicate. We have noticed that certain metaphors may come into our individual or collective consciousness which describe a concept that is being developed as part of the inquiry or project. These metaphors are explored in depth in the dialogue sessions.

One strength of the collaborative process is that often a metaphor will present itself to one collaborator that would never have been evident to the other since it is out of the realm of his or her experience. For example, in a prior inquiry on collaborative learning (Lawrence and Mealman, 1996) we were searching for ways to more deeply explore facilitating the collaborative process in groups. Craig had some knowledge of wilderness tracking and introduced a metaphor about studying animal tracks and learning to think like the animals, where they were when they stepped in that particular space. Randee, having had no experience with tracking was able to make the connection to interpersonal relationships through the collaborative exploration of the metaphor. Similarly, Randee has done a lot of photography and was struck with how one could metaphorically understand others' perspectives by looking through different lenses. Craig was able to comprehend and work with the metaphor even though his experience with cameras was limited to the point and shoot variety. These discussions sparked other metaphors that aided our understanding, such as putting ourselves into uncomfortable positions to view a sunset unobscured by trees. An added benefit to the sharing of metaphors in collaborative inquiry is, that as collaborators search their own experiences for relevant examples that communicate their understanding to one another, existing knowledge is uncovered which aids in the creation of new knowledge.

Often in our work together, some time passes between the more intense, prolonged conversations. It is during these times that a period of incubation occurs (Firestone, 1996). During this period, many other tasks occupy our agenda. Nonetheless, it seems as though the inquiry is being advanced in a subconscious manner. During these incubation periods, we both keep journals to record insights and connections that emerge. We share these journal entries and then provide written feedback about each other's contributions. The subsequent reading and discussion of these reflections prompts yet another round of individual reflection or filtering of the information through the lens of our own experiences. Collaborative knowledge is deepened and enriched through these reflection and dialogue cycles.

Model for Collaborative Inquiry

Collaborative Inquiry is like a huge kettle hanging outdoors on a tripod which is fueled by natural materials. Establishing and maintaining a culture that challenges the dominant paradigm for knowledge creation and "pushes the boundaries of what knowledge making is all about." (Clark and Watson, 1997 p. 57.) requires certain ingredients mixed together in the kettle. The essence or aroma (collaborative knowledge) from the cooking pot, derives in part from the data collection and analysis process of collaborative inquiry. The collaborators' experiences, dialogue (employing attentive listening) and reflection are the primary ingredients in the pot. Herbs and spices (the emergent literature on collaborative inquiry) complement these ingredients. The ingredients are fueled by shared passion, attention to relationship, commitment, and openness to divergent views. Following is a brief overview of the essential components of the collaborative inquiry process. While expressed separately below, these complex, interacting components are overlapping and linked.

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Developing Collaborative Knowledge- Collaborative inquiry creates intersubjective understanding, including areas of common experience and mutual knowing. Knowledge is co-created by the group and is shared by the group.

Dialogue- Dialogue is central to the process of collaborative inquiry. This includes storytelling, creating metaphors and using other right brained processes, experience sharing and the expression of tentative, not fully-formed ideas.

Reflection-Engagement in collaborative inquiry requires multiple levels of reflection:individual reflection on process and experience, individual reflection on the written reflection of others, and group reflection through dialogue.

Shared Passion- When passion is mutual, the motivation for collaboration is high. Excitement and energy generated by one member often ignites passion in others.

Relationship- The potential for collaboration is enhanced by a shared history and careful attention to relationship building. It is characterized by an affirmation of one another's contributions, an absence of internal competition and the nurturing of individual and well as group development.

Attentive Listening- Collaborative inquiry requires careful attention to self and others by listening with the intent to understand, observing nonverbal cues, attending to affective responses, honoring silence, and listening to the spaces between the silences.

Openness to divergent views- By acknowledging that our own knowledge base may be limited by our socio-cultural background and experiences and becoming open to seeing from another's frame, opportunities to extend knowledge are created.

Commitment- In order for effective collaboration to occur, members must be committed to themselves, to one another and to the group process and project.

Discussion

In this section we highlight three significant themes that emerged from our research: The value of commitment, the inclusion of peripheral and half baked ideas and the emergence of the collaborative self.

Commitment

Engagement in a collaborative inquiry process requires multiple levels of commitment. We have discovered that commitment occurs on four levels: to self, to the project (including both the process and outcome), to the inquiry group as a whole, and to each individual within the group.

Commitment to self includes the knowledge and belief that one has the ability, the openness and willingness to devote oneself to a complex and multi-layered project. The multi-layered project includes not only one's internal motivation, but the various dimensions of working collaboratively with others. We have found that individual researchers need to bring a level of readiness which includes curiosity and a general sense of being open to varied and new phenomena. The commitment to openness, personal risk taking and one's ability to learn are important to collaborative inquiry.

Commitment to the project is critical for collaborative inquiry. This involves the belief in the collaborative process as a dynamic way of constructing knowledge. It is a belief that something important will emerge, even though the path seems obscured by fog some of the time. Commitment to the project means that group members value the time spent on the inquiry and do not see it as a burden. Equally as important as the outcome or end product of the inquiry is the inquiry process itself. We believe that it is in the actual doing of collaborative inquiry where the greatest learning occurs. We first discovered this phenomenon when we submitted a proposal to facilitate a 90 minute workshop at an international conference. Our proposal was accepted with one revision. Instead of a workshop we were asked to participate in a poster session. This posed a great dilemma. How were we to convey the complexities of our work in a visual image that some would view only momentarily? During our planning sessions we were forced to rethink and rework our ideas in many different ways. This process turned out to be far more enriching than the actual presentation of our ideas at the conference.

Commitment to the group may involve temporarily subordinating, or at least holding lightly, personal needs for the greater good of the group. This includes finding ways to work with the various ideologies, experiences, research orientation, styles and needs of the different members.

Time is also a significant factor for a group engaged in a collaborative project. In collaborative inquiry one must be willing to devote time for the collaboration, balancing it with other personal commitments. This is not easy. As full time professors, family and community members, we have often struggled with finding time to pursue our inquiries. This has been complicated by the fact that for much of the time we are separated by more than 400 miles. We have found that providing large blocks of time devoted exclusively to advancing our research works better than small chunks. At times this involves forgoing other efforts and projects that compete for our time. At other times one or both of us has had to take a detour from the inquiry to attend to other pressing business. In individual inquiry one may become so immersed in other responsibilities that the inquiry project may remain on a back burner for an extended period of time. In collaborative inquiry, with other people invested in the project, there is greater likelihood for continued sustainability.

A commitment to work together as a group is developed through shared passion for an area of mutual concern or interest. However, shared passion alone is not always enough to sustain the inquiry over time. For example, one group developed a shared history and deep affection for one another while working on a project. They committed to staying together as a group to work on another project of longer duration. After a while it became clear that some members had stronger individual passions that were taking them in different directions Still, they maintained they were going to stay together as one group. Eventually they realized that their lack of common passion was dividing them to the point of inertia. Although they remained committed to one another, they realized they could not pursue a collaborative inquiry.

Individuals engaged in collaborative inquiry also need to be committed to <u>one another</u>. This may take the form of encouragement, celebration of individual accomplishments, stepping in to take over when another is unable to do so or attending carefully to another's thoughts and ideas . The commitment to understanding the other's perspective is foundational to collaborative inquiry.

An unexpected benefit to collaborative inquiry may be the nurturing or development of transformative learning in the individual co-researchers. In our research process since we value one another as individuals as well as research partners, time has been devoted to supporting individual growth and development. Co-researchers can become mirrors for each other, reflecting reality that initiates and facilitates transformational processes. Reason (1994) postulates that collaborative inquiry disrupts the lives of the researchers and that it is likely that individuals will change. While it is understood that some degree of relationship among the collaborators, along with mutual interest, often facilitates collaborative inquiry, an unexpected outcome of this process has been the growth of the relationship of the inquirers which serves to strengthen commitment to the inquiry.

In collaborative inquiry, investment in team members is an investment in self. In our experience we have sometimes delayed working on the "collaborative project" when one or the other can not be fully present because of some other pressing concern. A collaborator may need help getting unstuck or freed up from some other aspect of one's life. We have tended to university business, attended to each other's transformative learning experiences, and to other life happenings which occur concomitantly with our work.

In order to maintain a viable collaborative inquiry, all four levels of commitment need to be present and in balance. If one is committed to oneself but not to the group, one may potentially alienate group members while pursing self interests. If one is committed to the group but not the project, one may soon lose interest or experience a conflict between personal goals and the goals of the group. It seems as though we are constantly attending to and negotiating among these areas of commitment.

Peripheral and Half-Baked Ideas

In our dialogue sessions, two related patterns of communication emerged. We introduce and allow half-baked or partially formed ideas, and we pay attention to thoughts and ideas that seem on the periphery of our topic, treating everything as if it were relevant.

One way to use dialogue between collaborators is in the "baking of ideas." This form of communication assumes a great deal of trust. In a trusting relationship, inquirers do not hesitate to

put tentative, not fully thought out ideas on the table for discussion. Trust involves a willingness to be open and share these tentative thoughts and ideas that are often fragile like new seedlings. It means knowing that they will be taken seriously and not squashed prematurely. It means trusting that collaborative partners will help to nurture these thoughts, often adding thoughts of their own so they may grow and develop. These half-baked ideas are welcomed as raw ingredients for knowledge creation. Yeast is added to this mixture of ingredients, through dialogue. It is left to rise over time, kneaded, baked for a while and transformed into bread.

To participate in the creation of group knowledge one must be open and willing to share ideas and insights no matter how seemingly far out or half-baked. One not only must be willing to share ideas in collaborative inquiry, one has a responsibility to do so. This may include introducing points that are conflicting or which appear to be in disagreement with the prevailing consensus. There is a tendency to withhold these differing viewpoints in order to maintain group harmony. However, to not share these ideas could severely inhibit potential knowledge from emerging.

It is essential in collaborative inquiry that the dialogue is free flowing and not restricted to what seems to be relevant to a particular agenda. Sharing stories or digressing to discuss topics that seem only peripherally related to the inquiry subject are not only allowed, they are considered necessary to the process. As Brew (1993) observed, holding the assumption that everything is relevant increases opportunities for learning by drawing attention to that which may have been previously overlooked. These opportunities are magnified through collaborative inquiry since what maybe overlooked by one researcher is often articulated by another.

We have learned to view these seemingly unrelated stories, thoughts, and physical phenomena that catch our attention as attractions rather than distractions. It is often in the relating of these seemingly irrelevant stories and the consideration of phenomena that present themselves where connections are made, insights emerge and creativity is heightened. Experiencing this form of conversation is like walking down a path with another without knowing exactly where it is leading, but trusting that the path will lead both to deeper knowing.

As half-baked or peripheral ideas are introduced, collaborators need to have the confidence and patience to realize that a response need not always be immediate. Often when ideas are given time to incubate, more thoughtful responses become available. It is indeed quite affirming when one's collaborator reintroduces an idea that one raised previously after giving the idea considerable thought. Bateson (1994 p. 31) referred to this phenomenon as "spiral learning." We keep ideas and concepts that have no immediate application in the periphery of our consciousness to be returned to and more fully understood at a later time.

Collaborative Self

In collaborative inquiry, like most qualitative methodologies, the researchers are the primary tools of inquiry. Therefore, understanding self as inquirer is a necessity. In the case of collaborative inquiry the "self" is composed of the team of researchers. As part of our collaborative process, a collaborative self emerged which is characterized by its own language, ways of approaching problem solving, motivations and styles of working. "New language" (Clark and Watson, 1987 p. 59) has been developed which reflects the reality of the knowledge making. Phrases were coined and metaphors created (along with other language forms) representing the phenomena that emerged from the dialogue. Indeed, as Clark and Watson (1997) suggest, "new modes of intellectual engagement" (p.57) appear to be fostered which moves beyond the expected "synergistic" dynamic. In our research we have been less able to articulate the specific boundaries of our work, our relationship and our inquiry. Dimensions of each are woven into and through the other. The collaborative self deepens as the understanding and the relationships between the collaborators evolve. Clark and Watson (1997) have discussed a phenomena as "the creation of a new voice where the location or the self becomes more indeterminate, and we see a kind of fuzzing of the self"(p.58).

To work collaboratively in research and writing, one must place value on joint contributions relinquishing the idea of sole ownership of individual contributions. Additionally, one must not hold fast to ideas being viewed in one particular way. There is a fear that one could lose him or herself in the process and cease to be recognized. In our experience, the opposite was

true. At various points in our writing we would ask "Did I write this or did you?" We gradually realized that we could both share ownership for the pieces since the writing came from the collaborative voice. The collaborative voice was developed through extensive dialogue around salient themes that emerged from our data. Over time, we became less concerned about finding our individual voices because we could see that they were reflected in the outcome, and yet that outcome was stronger and deeper than either one of us could accomplish alone. Like a rope made up of individual threads we can be pulled apart and retain our individual uniqueness. However, entwined together, the rope has more strength. Rather than losing our selves to the collaboration, we found a stronger self.

Implications for Theory and Practice

This study expands how we understand ways in which knowledge is created and extended through a collaborative dynamic. Additionally, the findings of this study point to an alternative paradigm for working with emerging scholars in adult education graduate programs. There is emerging support in the literature establishing Collaborative Inquiry as a research method. (Heron 1996, Group for Collaborative Inquiry 1993, Clark and Watson, 1997). Existing doctoral programs in adult education have encouraged and currently support various forms of collaborative inquiry in their dissertation (Columbia University) and Critical Engagement Project (National-Louis University) (Heaney, 1997). The study suggests new ways of working with formal and informal adult education groups by drawing on the collective strength of the participants, therefore extending the collaborative learning fostered in these groups.

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Craig A. Mealman Ed.D., Assistant Professor Adult and Continuing Education
Randee Lipson Lawrence Ed.D., Assistant Professor Adult and Continuing Education
National-Louis University, 200 S. Naperville Rd., Wheaton, Il 60187
mealpath@win.bright.net rlaw@whe2.nl.edu

CRITICAL REFLECTION IN PRACTICE: EXPERIENCES OF A NOVICE TEACHER

Tonette S. Rocco

ABSTRACT

Critical Incident Questionnaires (CIQs) are used by a novice teacher to provide insight into how her choice of teaching methods and material was viewed by students. Three response categories are discussed. Comments from the CIQs are used to illustrate how the students viewed an incident, followed by an examination of the teacher's response.

As a beginning teacher I am initiating a process of critical reflection using Brookfield's Becoming a Critically Reflective Teacher (1995) as a guide to improve my classroom interactions with students. Critical reflection on professional practice should be conducted throughout one's career to improve practice and enhance personal growth. Brookfield's (1986, 1995) work is informed by Schon (1983) who cautioned that society was experiencing a crisis of confidence in professionals. Schon (1983) reminds us that society looks to 'professionals for the definition and solution of our problems, and it is through them that we strive for social progress' (p. 4). Teachers are looked upon by students as being able to solve problems. Brookfield suggests critical reflection as a means to improve the art and practice of teaching. Reflection becomes critical when it fulfills two purposes an examination of: (1) power and how that power acts to 'undergird, frame, and distort educational processes and interactions;' and (2) 'assumptions and practices that seem to make our teaching lives easier' (p. 8). Teachers engaged in critical pedagogy (hooks, 1994) or trying to create a democratic classroom (Brookfield, 1995) work together with students to examine power relationships and recognize assumptions.

Brookfield (1995) suggests four critically reflective lenses teachers can use to 'see' their practice differently. First is recording our teaching and learning autobiography. When we reflect on our choice of methods, it is frequently because of a formative experience. A positive experience lends itself to attempts to duplicate the experience for our students while a negative experience causes avoidance of the method. Preparing an autobiographical account of ourselves as teachers and learners allows us to define and recognize our meaning schemes and perspectives. A limit to doing private self-reflection is that we can deny and distort what we don't want to see (Brookfield, 1995). The second lens is our students' eyes. Creating an environment where comfort and trust exist is a preliminary step to eliciting honest and useful feedback on a critical incident questionnaires. Students' anonymity must protect them from the perceived risk of responding candidly on CIQs. It will take time before trust has been earned. The third lens is our colleagues' insights and experiences. Brookfield (1995) points out that 'talking to colleagues about what we do unravels the shroud of silence in which our practice is wrapped' (p. 35). When we talk to peers about events we experience we can benefit from their perspective on and response to event. The fourth lens is to read theoretical literature. The literature on development can provide alternative explanations for students' hostility while reading the accounts of teachers can provide alternative explanations for disconcerting class events or times when the teacher simply feels as though she has failed.

As I planned to teach a course on general methods for teaching adults, I was concerned that both teacher and students had realistic expectations for the teaching-learning exchange. My first goal was to become a teacher that meets students' needs while encouraging students to become more active participants in their learning. Brookfield (1995) warns that planning

curriculum only according to students perceived needs, ³sets up an unattainable standard² because ³students sometimes take a dangerously narrow view of their needs² (p. 20). The second goal was to provide an atmosphere where we could surface our assumptions about the teaching-learning exchange together. In Teaching to Transgress, bell hooks (1994) challenges us to embrace change by facing the fact that ³most of us were taught in classrooms where styles of teachings reflected the notion of a single norm of thought and experience, which we were encouraged to believe was universal² (p. 35). For many, one such assumption is the image of the teacher as the possessor of knowledge which the student is there to receive. Another is that the student as recipient has little or no responsibility for their learning or for creating a learning community (hooks, 1994).

My third goal was to see the classroom through the students¹ eyes. To meet this goal at the end of each session students were asked to complete a critical incident questionnaire (CIQ) (Brookfield, 1995). The CIQ provides students an opportunity to reflect on the events of the session, to express their assessment of the class, and provides the instructor an opportunity to view the class from the student¹s eyes (Brookfield, 1995).

Brookfield (1995) suggests setting aside time ³devoted to an open-ended, open-agenda Œtroubleshooting¹ periodŠ expressly devoted to matters of process rather than content² (p. 101). After each session I summarizing the CIQs and used this summary as a springboard for a troubleshooting discussion. The CIQs were also used to adapt the course material and teaching methods to the needs of students based on the insights gained from the comments. At the beginning of each session the CIQ summary was presented. Part of the presentation was to tell the class which comments produced an action or reaction and to discuss the action or the reaction. I found that before the troubleshooting period could be effective a certain level of trust was needed between the students and teacher and the other students which seemed to increase as students realized that their remarks were taken seriously. The purpose of this paper is to examine the way the CIQs influenced the teaching-learning exchange.

Method

Critical incidents are collected from CIQ summaries, teacher reflection, and action. A critical incident questionnaire was distributed each session. Completing the CIQ was part of the participation grade even though they were not signed. The critical incident questionnaire contains these questions:

1. At what moment in the class this week did you feel most engaged with what was happening?
2. At what moment in the class this week did you feel most distanced from what was happening?
3. What action that anyone (teacher or student) took in class this week did you find most puzzling or confusing?
4. What action that anyone (teacher or student) took in class this week did you find most affirming and helpful?
5. What about the class this week surprised you the most? (This could be something about your own reactions to what went on, or something that someone did, or anything else that occurs to you.) (Brookfield, 1995, p. 115)

Each of the five questions is written to extract the critical incidents for each student for a session. When the questions are referred to in the rest of the paper, each will be identified by one word. Beginning with the first question and going through to the last, the words are: engaged, distanced, puzzling, affirming, and surprised.

Process

During the first course each student was asked to anonymously complete a CIQ after each session for the first four weeks, during the remaining six weeks the CIQ was passed out in the

beginning of the class. It seemed there was some importance to distributing the CIQs only at the end of class because that is the process Brookfield (1995) describes in [3]Becoming a Critically Reflective Teacher,[2] the text we used for the first course. The process change enabled students to record observations and insights as they occurred rather than remember critical incidents until the end of class. At the beginning of each class a summary of the preceding weeks comments were presented to the class. This same process was used during the second course. During the third course the distribution of the CIQs varied each session. I noticed that no matter when during the class I passed the CIQs out students immediately began to jot down comments. The reflections of the teacher during the course provide an additional source of insight. The teacher reflections focus on which CIQ comment(s) spawned what changes in the course material or teaching method. The critical incidents and the teacher's responses are the data of this study. A description of the critical incidents and responses, as data, will be conducted (Wolcott, 1994).

Course Descriptions

Two courses were taught at a regional campus and one course taught at the main campus. The two courses taught on the regional campus had a core group of students that was the same for each course. There was a group of about five students new to the cohort for the second course. There was one student in the first class who was not majoring in this area. In the second course all students were majoring in the area. Neither of the courses taught on the regional campus were typical. In one course was a person with a Ph.D., auditing the class who has been a lecturer for many years. Both the students and the instructor found him very disruptive and disrespectful of other learners, the learning process, and the instructor. In the third course a student auditing the course had a tremendous amount of power over the other students, the program, and the selection of instructors. The course taught on the main campus was composed of students who were majors and others who were not. Two of the students in the class I knew. One from a course taught where CIQs were not used. The other student I consider a friend and colleague.

The first course was teaching methods for adults, the second course was workforce education and lifelong learning, and the third course was lifelong learning in society. The second and third courses are required of all students in the program. However, even though the first course was technically an elective it was the only course from the program area taught with both the instructor and students in the same room.

Prior to the summer of 1997, I had only conducted sales and career training programs. That summer I was invited to co-teach a discussion methods class. Shortly after that I was asked to be part of a team developing the curriculum for the workforce education and lifelong learning class which I taught in the fall on the main campus. The teaching experiences reflected on in this paper occurred the next three quarters, winter, spring, and summer.

Critical Incident Questionnaires

This section includes a discussion of how the CIQs and the summary of the CIQs affected the way material was presented, changes in the assignments, and the relationship between students and other students and to the teacher. These areas will be supported by quotes from the CIQs and descriptions of teacher and class responses. I addressed the comments to the five questions on the CIQs by using different responses. These three responses are discussed: reaction, definition, and validation. Each response is defined; examples of comments are provided; followed by a description of my response.

Reaction

A reaction was simply remarking on something I said or did at the previous session, for instance an apology. A student comment under ³most puzzling² was ³kidding of behaviorist - uncomfortable with labeling of students.² This incident happened after the class had completed Zinn¹s Philosophy of Adult Education Inventory (1990) and the student had just labeled himself a behaviorist. In some ways this seems like a minor offense, however by apologizing I demonstrated that students are entitled to their feelings. I believe this increased the class trust and made the CIQ exercise worthwhile. I remember when an instructor making an inconsistent remark got in the way of my being able to hear the instructor and participate in the session. Since the course was on teaching methods I also used this incident to go talk about how the same thing happened to Brookfield and could happen to anyone of us, well-meaning liberal or not, and the students respond by labeling the instructor as intolerant of others and possibly not worth their time.

Another student in another course responded angrily to every question on the CIQ: ³the instructor only talked about herself;² ³the sequence and content delivery was very disjointed and out of context;² ³the instructor has demonstrated numerous times judgmental and bias in her examples;² ³Gardner¹s Learning theories should have been at least been listed or explained;² and ³I¹m surprised no-one has put together a who¹s who list for the intro. classes.² It was the first day of a class I had been given short notice to teach due to a retirement. I broke two photocopiers trying to duplicate the course packet for the class and was 20 minutes late because I had the wrong class time. The first and last statements weren¹t true, in fact attached to the syllabus is a list of books that have won various awards prepared by Susan Imel. Gardner¹s learning theories weren¹t relevant to the first day and were only briefly treated at all. Yes, I too was angry, hurt, and confused when I read this. And worse was the fact that I knew who the student was. She had referred to a previous course and there was only one student who had been in class with me before. The only positive reaction I could have was to apologize for being late, the disjointedness of the class, and try not to look directly at her or like I was avoiding looking at her while I responded. She left class that day quickly but before she did she came up to me and effervescently told me how wonderful class was, how she had enjoyed this and that, and how she put it all down in the CIQ. Well she didn¹t, it was obvious she was too embarrassed by her previous comments. Her comments and demeanor changed to active participation, critical when need be, without hostility for the remainder of the course.

Definition

Sometimes a word or phrase is confusing or unfamiliar to a student. Often the words or phrases would simply be written under ³most distanced.² Examples are: ³discussion of paradigm;² ³Mezirow;² ³womanist-bell hooks-black feminist;² and ³when discussing Jarvis article; Belanger¹s writings.² Sometimes these came under ³most puzzling² for instance despite a significant portion of time spent on the definition of these terms, three students wrote ³when discussing outcomes and KSAs.²

There are two different issues here the first is that all academics use words, phrases, and names that are familiar to us but are a foreign language to students. Using a CIQ allows a student who is intimidated--by their lack of knowledge, by feelings of inferiority, by the belief they are the only one who doesn¹t know--an opportunity to ask without being identified as the ³asker.² We use these words and phrases because they are related to the material we are covering, but just mentioning Mezirow and perspective transformation as an example for something else when

writing by him or about his ideas are not included in course readings, is distancing. At the next session, I described Mezirow, perspective transformation, and how his work has influenced the authors of some of our readings. I gave them enough information to find him on their own. Any time a word or a phrase appears on the CIQ I take the opportunity to define it and hopefully encourage some students to seek out more knowledge. Without the CIQ I would never know these words or phrases are confusing and instead of having an opportunity to encourage a student, the student would may have stayed discouraged and suspect of their own ability.

The second issue is the material I was covering on KSAs and outcomes was not grasped by these three students. Neither were some other students comfortable about their reading of the articles by Jarvis and Belanger. The way I dealt with the KSAs and outcomes was to ask other students to define them. This provided an opportunity for the students to practice ³teaching² and demonstrated that the teacher is not the only source of knowledge in a classroom (hooks, 1994). The writings of Jarvis and Belanger, I handled in another way. I confessed how difficult both authors are for me to read because neither one writes in standard American English; they both have very complex ideas; and I explained why they are important to the field. Some students were so excited by this confession they vowed to reread the articles and some have. As bell hooks (1994) points out, ³It is often productive if professors take the first risk, linking confessional narratives to academic discussions so as to show how experience can illuminate and enhance our understanding of academic material² (p. 21).

Validation

Validation involved reassuring students about their ability to learn and participate. Examples under ³most surprised,² and ³most distanced,² are: ³felt more confident and sure of what background I have;² ³although we are all different we are much the same, we all have insecurities and we are in this learning process together. We need to support each other in this group;² ³sharing my fear of failure; picking up confidence; that so many people feel unconfident;² ³ how there are no wrong answers and how we're coming along. With this being new I've worried that I'm on the right track;² ³being new, the opening discussion was very confusing. Everyone seemed to know what you wanted for the options;² ³I felt least engaged in the larger group session when everyone who already knew each other and knew the coursework were conversing. I felt a little out of place.² ³I realize that I'm not as experienced or knowledgeable in the field, but I felt like I was totally off;² and ³I was surprised that others had trouble with the same things I did--I know it shouldn't surprise me, but I sometimes feel like it's just me. From now on, I'll try not to feel alone.²

All of these responses came from the regional campus. One explanation for the lack of self-confidence might be the way the students are recruited into the program. On the main campus, no active recruitment occurs. Students find the program when they are ready. This insecurity became overwhelming for me. Even though I would try to make reassuring remarks when I presented the CIQ summaries, it didn't seem to make the students less apprehensive. My first attempt to demonstrate that they shared common insecurities, self-doubt, and negative views of their own abilities was to ask them to prepare their learning autobiographies as a written assignment. The students shared these with the class. This helped some but each week insecurities still surfaced in the CIQs.

Next, I tried an in-class exercise that I felt was risky, maybe I had no right to ask, or the responses would be too emotional. The class reflected on, ³What is your image of yourself as a learner or student?² and ³What will you do to improve yourself in the role of learner?² Each

student in turn gave an account of themselves as learners. Some admitted their fears and insecurities, others admitted thinking everyone else in class was so much more experienced as a student. The students who admitted these feelings were the students assumed to be experienced and knowledgeable. This demonstration did more to make people feel comfortable then any words I could have come up with, talking about my fears as a student were easily dismissed since I was now standing before them as teacher.

Final Reflections

After using the CIQs for three courses over three quarters, I started to reflect on the CIQ questions. Questions asking about engagement, distance, puzzlement, affirmation, and surprise are possibly not direct enough. It seemed to me that direct questions that asked what I really want to know about might glean more insightful comments from students. I have six questions I am considering using this fall: (1) What segment or method of this session would you keep? Why? (2) What aspect of this session would you improve? How? (3) Did you fulfill your responsibilities as a student or learner for the session? How? or Why not? (4) What aspect of your participation would you improve? How? (5) Describe any particular shining moments during this session. (6) Describe any moments that were alienating to you or others. These questions or the perceived need for different questions comes from the sometimes bland often repetitive comments on the CIQs. They also emanate from my reading of hooks (1994) and the responsibility of both the instructor and the student to create space for a learning community and for the learning outcomes. As she writes, ³All to often we have been trained as professors to assume students are not capable of acting responsibly, that if we don¹t exert control over them, then there¹s just going to be mayhem² (p. 152). Changing this assumption is a process that both teachers and learners need to participate in together. One cannot change the perception of responsible versus irresponsible or the powerful prevailing over the powerless without the cooperation and enthusiasm of the other.

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Tonette S. Rocco, Ph. D. rocco.6@osu.edu
69 East First Avenue
Columbus, OH 43201

THE ASSESSMENT OF STUDENT LEARNING OUTCOMES IN MANAGEMENT AND BUSINESS-RELATED ADULT ACCELERATED DEGREE COMPLETION PROGRAMS IN THE COALITION FOR CHRISTIAN COLLEGES & UNIVERSITIES

Jeffrey F. Sherlock

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to document and analyze the current state of student learning outcomes assessment by administrators of adult accelerated degree completion programs (AADCPs) in management and business-related majors within the Coalition for Christian Colleges and Universities (CCCU). The findings suggested that assessment is influenced by a variety of internal and external bodies. Institutions use a variety of methods to assess student outcomes, to evaluate the effectiveness of individual courses, and to evaluate overall program effectiveness. Assessment efforts among AADCPs in the CCCU tend to focus on affective and behavioral outcomes rather than cognitive, content outcomes.

Introduction

A topic of intense discussion in higher education is the assessment of learning outcomes. Not only are college students (and their parents) concerned about what is being received in exchange for a significant financial investment, but state legislatures and regional accrediting agencies are interested as well. A 1988 American Council on Education (ACE) study indicated that "about half of the 367 institutions surveyed have some form of assessment activities underway." Forty-three percent of public colleges and universities sampled by ACE were "operating under a state mandate to develop an assessment program." (VanDyke, 1991)

In the mid-1970s, the University of Phoenix began the Institute of Professional Development (IPD), the first attempt to create a university program designed for career adults and modeled after adult learning principles. Other schools emulated and refined the IPD program and the number of adult degree programs grew rapidly. In 1983 only 100 such programs could be identified; by 1993, over 600 institutions reported having this type of program. (CAEL, 1993)

The Coalition for Christian Colleges and Universities is a group of 91 religiously-oriented institutions of higher learning in the United States. Adult degree programs have become especially prevalent within the Coalition for Christian Colleges and Universities (CCCU). Of the 88 four-year institutions in the CCCU during Balzer's 1996 study, 54 (61.4%) had at least one degree completion program; nineteen of those programs began between 1992 and 1996. (Balzer, 1996)

A 1993 white paper prepared by The Council for Adult and Experiential Learning (CAEL) and The American Council on Education (ACE) and entitled, Adult degree programs: Quality issues, problem areas, and action steps, noted the proliferation of adult degree programs and raised concerns about the quality of such programs. While the paper was careful to point out that "... it is not our contention that these problems occur in most programs...," its stated purpose was to outline "essential ingredients of quality in adult learning ... [and describe] problem areas that pose particular threats to the quality of these programs ..." (p. 2)

The CAEL/ACE (1993) paper noted that "a key principle of good practice for all degree programs for adults is that clearly articulated programmatic learning outcomes should frame the comprehensive curriculum as well as specific learning experiences." Listing a number of assumptions that underlie the rationale for accelerated programs (reservoir of knowledge, skill

and experience, purposeful and motivated, etc.), the paper noted, "The success of an accelerated program in particular hinges upon the concept of learning outcomes ... [based on these assumptions and] ....it is important to ask whether these are valid assumptions to make about all employed adults." The paper continued, "Problems arise in accelerated adult degree programs when programs are not outcome based or when outcomes are not assessed using appropriate academic procedures and protocols for evaluating learning" (pp. 30-31).

Problem and Research Questions

Little has been published in the area of assessment of learning outcomes in accelerated adult degree completion programs. Directors of such programs have little information on the assessment practices of other similar programs that can guide assessment and improvement efforts in their own institutions. As demand for accountability of teaching and learning effectiveness increases and as the number and proportion of adult students increases, directors of accelerated adult degree completion programs will be required to demonstrate learning outcomes of their students.

The study addressed two primary research questions:

1. What are the internal and external driving forces that influence assessment of student learning outcomes in management-related AADCPs?
2. What assessment instruments and processes are CCCU institutions using to assess learning outcomes in management-related AADCPs?

Importance of the Study

This study was important because:

1. It begins to fill a void in the literature on assessment of learning outcomes in higher education. A review of assessment literature found very little relevant research related to assessment of learning outcomes in adult degree completion programs.
2. Its dissemination may influence assessment practice in non-traditional higher education.
3. It provides accreditation bodies with comparative data about how various institutions of higher learning assess learning outcomes in non-traditional programs.
4. It provides the foundation for additional studies into effective teaching strategies for adults in higher education.

Design and Methodology Research

The study was descriptive in nature and consisted of a multi-phase research process utilizing the survey method to elicit both qualitative and quantitative data.

In the first phase, the researcher conducted a telephone survey with each of the 91 institutions in the CCCU to determine whether the institution offered a AADCP. The survey also elicited information on appropriate contact information within the AADCP. Fifty-six CCCU institutions (61.5%) had a management-related AADCP.

In the second phase, the researcher mailed a questionnaire containing open- and closed-ended questions to the administrator of each institution's AADCP. The researcher used an identifying number to track responses and followed up on non-respondents using letters, e-mail and telephone calls. Fifty surveys (89.3%) were returned.

Results

The researcher tallied responses by regional accrediting body, program size, and program age. Tables 1, 2, and 3 show the response profile along each dimension.

Table 1: Respondents grouped by regional accrediting body

Region	Frequency	Percent
Middle States Association of Colleges and Schools (MSA)	4	8.0%
Northwest Association of Schools and Colleges (NASC)	5	10.0%
North Central Association of Colleges and Schools (NCA)	25	50.0%
Southern Association of Colleges and Schools (SACS)	10	20.0%
Western Association of Schools and Colleges (WASC)	6	12.0%
	50	100.0%

Table 2: Respondents grouped by program size

Students currently enrolled	Frequency	Percent
0-50	5	10.0%
51-100	13	26.0%
101-150	9	18.0%
151-200	6	12.0%
201-250	3	6.0%
more than 250	14	28.0%
	50	100.0%

Table 3: Respondents grouped by age of program

Program began in	Frequency	Percent
1996-1997	3	6.0%
1994-1995	9	18.0%
1992-1993	10	20.0%
1990-1991	7	14.0%
1988-1989	11	22.0%
before 1988	10	20.0%
	50	100.0%

Assessment in Individual Courses

AADCP Administrators use a variety of instruments to assess student outcomes in individual courses. Table Four shows that the most common instrument is a student attitudinal survey (98%), followed by a student summary project/paper (96%). Only 30% of respondents used student final examinations to assess learning outcomes. However, the use of faculty assessment and student final examinations varies significantly across accreditation regions.

Table 4: Assessment Instruments - Individual Courses	Never / seldom used	Frequently / always used	Region	Size	Age
Student attitudinal survey / course evaluation	0.0%	98.0%			
Student summary project/paper	2.0%	96.0%			
Graded weekly assignments	8.0%	74.0%			
Weekly assignments for discussion	16.0%	64.0%			
Faculty assessment of group learning outcomes	22.0%	52.0%	*	*	
Faculty assessment of individual learning outcomes	26.0%	42.0%	*		
Student final examinations	52.0%	30.0%	*		

* Statistically significant at .05 level

Table Five shows that the course instructor is the most common evaluator of individual courses (90%), followed by the director of the AADCP (82%). Only 2% of AADCP assessment efforts involve faculty from outside the Business Department, and only about one quarter (26%) involve faculty in the business department.

Table 5: Reviewers/Assessors of Individual Courses	Percent Utilizing
Course Instructor	90.0%
Director of AADCP	82.0%
AADCP Faculty	36.0%
Academic Dean	30.0%
Business Department Faculty	26.0%
Students	14.0%
Other	10.0%
College/University Faculty	2.0%

Assessment in Overall Program Evaluation

The most frequently used method to evaluate overall program effectiveness is a student survey (70%) followed by a capstone research project (64%). Only 18% of AADCPs use the standardized ETS Major Field Test in Business (ETS-MFT-B) as a posttest instrument and none use the ETS test in pretest/posttest assessment. The ACT College Outcome Measures Test (ACT-COMP), designed to assess general education skills, is used as a pretest/posttest instrument by 8% of responding AADCPs. The use of a standardized test (ACT-COMP or ETS-MFT-B) varies statistically by size of program. The use of other internally and externally developed instruments varies statistically by accreditation region and by size of the program.

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Table 6: Assessment Instruments - Program Evaluation	Pretest	Posttest	Pretest & Posttest	Region	Size	Age
ACT-COMP	8.0%	12.0%	8.0%		*	
ETS Major Field Test in Business	0.0%	18.0%	0.0%			
Other externally developed instruments	6.0%	12.0%	4.0%	*	*	
Other internally developed instruments	14.0%	30.0%	14.0%			
Student survey	12.0%	70.0%	12.0%			
Faculty survey	0.0%	22.0%	0.0%			
Employer survey	0.0%	16.0%	0.0%			
Capstone research project		64.0%				
Other	0.0%	16.0%	0.0%			

* Statistically significant at .05 level

Influences on Assessment and Evaluation

Many AADCP administrators (82%) stated that regional accreditation associations exert some or much influence on assessment and evaluation; no statistically significant difference existed across accreditation associations. The perception of AADCP administrators regarding the influence of state education oversight bodies on assessment is unclear, possibly the result of confusion about the survey question. (Sectarian institutions such as those found in the CCCU neither receive funding from the state, nor are accountable to the state; however some administrators may have perceived an assessment influence indirectly through state supported educational institutions.) A statistically significant difference exists across accreditation regions regarding administrators' perceptions about the influence of AADCP faculty, College faculty, and non-AADCP academic offices.

Table 7: Influences on Assessment and Evaluation	Little / no influence	Some / much influence	Region	Size	Age
State education oversight bodies	50.0%	30.0%			
Regional accreditation associations	2.0%	82.0%			
AADCP faculty	10.0%	70.0%	*		
College faculty	14.0%	64.0%	*		
Non-AADCP academic offices	16.0%	56.0%	*		

* Statistically significant at .05 level

Findings

This study produced four major findings regarding the assessment of student outcomes in AADCPs.

1. AADCP administrators did not have a clear consensus regarding the influence of state education bodies on assessment practices. A strong majority of administrators stated that regional accreditation associations exercise influence on the assessment process. The influence of AADCP faculty, institution faculty and non-AADCP academic offices differs across accrediting regions, indicating that some regions emphasize assessment activities at the institutional level more than do others.
2. AADCP administrators use a variety of assessment methods to assess student outcomes and evaluate the effectiveness of individual courses. The most prevalent methods of assessment are student surveys/course evaluations (98%) and summary projects/papers (96%).
3. Most assessment instruments used to evaluate program effectiveness are used for posttest purposes only. Instruments designed to measure cognitive outcomes are especially underutilized.
4. A majority of AADCPs are making little attempt to assess the long-term effect of the program on students. Less than half (42%) of responding administrators stated that they are currently assessing or have plans to assess program effectiveness longitudinally. Only

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28% were currently attempting some type of longitudinal assessment, primarily consisting of surveys of students and alumni.

Implications

The findings of the study have several practical implications for institutions with AADCPs and the administrators of those programs.

1. Assessment is an issue that is not going to go away and will likely become even more important in the future.
2. AADCP administrators should consider the involvement of institutional academic offices outside the AADCP in the assessment process to address increased demands for assessment.
3. AADCP administrators must be prepared to defend claims that accelerated programs and traditional programs achieve similar outcomes and/or are of similar quality.
4. AADCP assessment programs should address the relative paucity of cognitive content outcome assessment.
5. Institutions need to work together to develop a set of common objectives for management and business-related AADCPs and to develop assessment instruments which address those common objectives.
6. AADCP assessment programs need to address the issue of program effectiveness through the use of pretest and posttest instruments.
7. AADCP assessment efforts should more systematically address long-term effects of the program on students.

Recommendations for Additional Research

By nature, all research is investigative. The primary contribution of this study may be its bringing to light additional questions that need further research. The researcher suggests five recommendations for further inquiry.

1. Additional research should identify and articulate both conitive content outcomes and affective/behavioral outcomes desired in AADCPs which can serve as a guide to developing assessment instruments to measure those outcomes.
2. Additional research into comprehensive models of assessment would provide guidance for emulation and improvement by other institutions.
3. Additional research into how AADCPs integrate learning outcomes across the curriculum would provide insight into a systematic approach to program assessment.
4. Additional research should compare outcomes between traditional programs and AADCPs. Most AADCP educators seem to believe their students achieve outcomes equivalent to or greater than those of traditional students. Can this opinion be demonstrated with objective evidence?
5. Additional research should compare longitudinal outcomes of accelerated and traditional programs. Few people argue that traditional and non-traditional students begin with identical levels of experience. Even if the claim that students from both programs end up at the same place can be substantiated, is this true over time? Or might students in traditional programs catch up within a few years because learning was enhanced through longer exposure to the material in the classroom?

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Jeffrey F. Sherlock, School of Business, Tri-State University, Angola, IN. jfsherlock@juno.com
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PRAXIS NO CONSENSUS:
CURRICULUM MEETS CLASSROOM IN MULTICULTURAL ADULT EDUCATION

Sherwood E. Smith
Catherine A. Hansman.

"I wonder if we have ever asked ourselves what education means.
To live is to find out for yourself what is true, and you can do this only when there is freedom,
When there is continuous revolution inwardly, within yourself.
It is only when you are constantly inquiring, constantly observing, constantly learning, ...
You cannot be deeply aware if you are afraid. So the function of education, surely is to eradicate, Inwardly as well as outwardly, this fear that destroys human thought, human relationship and love."

Krisnamurti

Changing demographic patterns in the United States (Ross-Gordon, 1990) points towards a future in which the labor force will not be majority white males or of European decent. However, changes in numbers of minorities in the work force do not necessarily reflect changes in the power dynamics in our society. Within the field of adult education, America's changing society has stimulated discussion both inside and outside the classroom leading to curriculum change among professional adult educators. Since professors of adult education help prepare teachers of adult learners, they are concerned about the most effective approach to introduce issues concerning diversity and to foster critical thinking skills among their students.

Adult education as a field of practice claims that the experiences of learners are critical to effective practice (Mezirow, 1991; Knowles, 1980). However, the practice has until recently ignored the importance of ethnic, gender, race, and sexual orientation as they relate to culture and power interactions within curriculum theory and classroom practice. This avoidance is not without reason since the introduction of controversial and emotionally laden topics may be risky for faculty and trainers. Student's responses are much less predictable and less under the control of faculty (Rhoads & Valadez, 1996).

Despite claims of academic freedom, the culture of higher education has clear and restrictive measures of appropriate and commendable behavior for faculty members. Untenured professors or instructors may be inhibit from initiating open discussion on emotional or political charged topics. Conflicts within the classroom can be viewed by both other faculty members and students as lack of preparation or poor organization / control (Boyer, 1990). Furthermore, evaluations of service and teaching are often linked to only quantitative measures of success such as student ratings. Because of these two factors, professors of adult education may face stress, uncertainty, and reluctance when introducing and fostering critical thinking about the issues around multicultural education. The question we, as professional adult educators, ask, then is "how are we [adult educators] to deliver course content in such a way that classroom discourse acknowledges all voices - the multiple ways in which people interpret and reflect their understanding of the world?" (Sheared, 1994, p. 28).

One of the implications including of multicultural issues in the classroom is change in meaning making and behavior which may lead to perspective transformation by students within the adult education classrooms. Mezirow (1991) describes perspective transformation as "the process of becoming critically aware of how and why our assumptions have come to constrain the

way we perceive, understand and feel about our world, changing these structures of habitual expectation to make possible a more inclusive, discriminating, and integrative perspective; and finally, making choices or otherwise acting upon these new understandings" (p. 167). Although adult education as a field is beginning to recognize how the inclusion of multicultural issues affects curriculum and pedagogy (i.e. Ross-Gordan, 1994; Sheared, 1994; Tisdell & McLaurin, 1994), it has not explored the variety of responses and outcomes from this inclusion. The purpose of this paper and presentation is to deconstruct and discuss the ways in which adult education professors include issues related to race, class, gender and sexual orientation in their classes. A second intention is to make explicit the change or transformation regarding graduate students' perceptions that we have observed, both positives and negatives.

Curriculum Concerns

Since adult education graduate courses should provide training for adult educators who will in turn interact with the larger diverse population of adult learners in a variety of settings, graduate curriculum should incorporate multiple learning styles and address issues of culture and power (Bailey, Tisdell, & Cervero, 1994; Cunningham, 1989). The challenges of incorporating these ideas are often defined as solely a curriculum changes. However, these changes also involve restructuring teaching practices to provide classroom and other experiences to students which will allow critical reflection concerning our increasingly multicultural nation.

Educators must be aware of the realities of the lived experiences of both faculty and students. Students may be at differing developmental levels in regards to the issues of a multicultural curriculum. These differing levels impact directly on such things as comfort level with the topic, expectations of others, awareness of the subject area, and the level of emotion in response to a given topic. One way of understanding these differences is through psychological models of identity development. For example, in their book Preventing Prejudice, Ponterotto & Pedersen (1993) summarize the variety of models of ethnic identity development for groups such as Blacks, Chicana/os, Asians and Whites. The model presents a continuum awareness of ethnic identity in a linear manner beginning at a point of naivete or unawareness of multicultural issues. Some critical incident acts to expose the person to their own or others' ethnic identity. At this point there are many possible responses. We present two possible paths below to explain the classroom responses we observed. The learner may react with behaviors or comments that act to maintain the status quo or can be very adamant in favor of this new worldviews. Later on the learner becomes engaged in a process of constructing an adoption of new paradigms to support a changed worldview. This does not necessarily suggest a change in personal action but rather new ideas and language. It is in the last stages of these models that we see the balance combination of the old and new worldviews. In summary the models are shown below:

Summary Model of Identity Development

Pre-exposure / Pre-encounter - [No Social Consciousness]	Exposure / Encounter -		PATHS 1 or 2
PATH 1	Acceptance /Resistance [Zealot or Defense]	Redefinition [Immersion]	Internalization /Integration
PATH 2	Disintegration	Reintegration	Pseudo- independence	Commitment

The models clearly explain that people will have a divergence of reactions to a discussion of issues of identity or ethnicity. More importantly, faculty and students can be at a variety of different places regarding their self-awareness and acceptance of these topics. These levels of awareness will affect curriculum designs because they are mediated by the experiences of the instructor, just as students' experiences of the curriculum are mediated by the contextual framework in which these actual events occur (Knowles, 1980 & Tisdell, 1995). The models challenge the idea of a fixed curriculum that does not respond to the actual learners' experience. Who is in the classroom, students and faculty is critical to what the responses will be. Where we as faculty are in our own personal identity development is equally critical. Last, it is worth noting that we disagree with the concept of this as a linear process. A spiral or wheel are better images to describe how people move back and forth as the topics and life experiences change.

One of the goals of multicultural education is the inclusion of other perspectives and voices in curriculum and pedagogy. Sleeter and Grant (1987), Banks (1989) and others provide educators with a systematic way to categorize various forms of multicultural education. However, little has been written which describes how adult educators can include readings, reflection, discussions and other activities designed to foster self-awareness, critical reflection, and cultural sensitivity given the different types of experiences and levels of ethnic identity development faculty and students bring to the learning environment.

Transformative theory (Mezirow, 1991) has application in the context of the multicultural issues classroom because it defines the importance of critical reflection, one's assumptions, and how individuals may construct meaning. The challenges to professors are to include reflection exercises and discussions concerning the multifaceted components of a culture, such as class, ethnicity, gender, race and sexual orientation. The adult education graduate classroom is a socially constructed context for events. As such, it mirrors power inequities in larger society; therefore, professors of adult education must be active in their attempts to create multiple new experiences to aid in the understanding and deconstruction of assumptions, stereotypes, biases, and prejudices. It is a given that as students come to understandings of power and gain comprehension of hegemonic and cultural norms there will be an emotional response. That response will depend on their previous experiences or levels of awareness. Student responses are essential to deconstructing hegemonic norms and should not be silenced. Unless activities which allow students to discuss these experiences and responses are made part of the curriculum, students will have no opportunity for self-reflection and demystification of social systems. The silencing of students' emotion and personal experiences does not guarantee faculty's control or success (Maher & Tetreault, 1994). Furthermore, if transformation itself is limited by the norms of the society, it cannot be liberating (Ross-Gordan, 1994) as a mechanism social change. If students are silenced and do not gain an expanded awareness of multicultural issues that they can apply to their own practices, we, as professors of adult education, have done a disservice to our students, our field and our communities.

Classroom Exercises and Reflection Activities

As professors of adult education, we must be proactive in addressing issues of race, class, gender, and sexual orientation in our graduate classrooms. One approach we used was to structure exercises and assignment around two models of social learning. The first approach was the intentional effort to cover all of Bank's (1989) levels of multicultural curriculum in some form. Our second effort was to begin with a focus on the concepts of self and critical reflection (Hayes

& Colin III, 1994; Rhoads & Valadez, 1996). We strive to include exercises and opportunities for discourse within our classrooms.

One example is the use of written assignments that require multiple forms of self-reflection. A format for short papers called DAY [Describe, Affect and Yore] is used to have students explore their own construction of reality. DAY papers have three parts:

1. Describe [D] briefly your understanding of the author's, speaker's, character's major point or theme. This should give me the major point(s) with definitions.
2. Analysis [A] of the reason the points in D were used. What was the goal of the piece, especially given the POSITIONALITY of the producer of the work? [*Positionality refers to the experiences that influenced his/her work or idea]
3. Yore [Y] refers to your own emotional history in reference to the work. How did you feel? What about the work evoked what feelings? What are sources of the feelings?

At times, this and similar activities seem to have led to transformative experiences for students regarding their assumptions concerning race, class, gender and sexual orientation. This happens we believe, in part, because it is a tool for both personal reflection and facilitated discussion of an issue or event.

Our former students described their transformative experiences generally in two ways. First, after new experiences with ways of feeling, seeing or thinking, students had comments such as:

"The biggest thing I gained from attending this course was a much broader understanding of how much actual contact we all have each day with cultures that are different from our own."

"I was unaware of the compounding factors of privileged and power until this class. When you do not think, you do not have to be aware"

As students gained insights into the structures or systems of culture and socialization and self-awareness, they have said:

"If it has done nothing else it has made me more mindful of how I define my world & myself..."

"I was unaware of the compounding factors of privilege and power until this class."

Second, students' gained insight into the structures and systems of culture and socialization lending to new self-awareness.

"It helped me understand better a 'world' that is different from mine. I wonder what voices are being left-out and why."

"When you do not think, you do not have to be aware"

"If it has done nothing else it has made me more mindful of how I define my world & myself..."

The classroom must be seen as a social context that represents the larger society and so the adult educator must be active in her/his attempts to mediate the multiple forms of power inequalities or restrictive role expectations. This is done by giving voice to silent or invisible ideas and people that are present within the field. The expanding of the social and cultural norms helps our learners to gain experiences they can apply to their practice. As one student said, "You cannot make changes if you are not at least aware of these issues." Another stated that, "...When I walk into a classroom I feel that I must help each student to see the world clearly through their own eyes, not mine or anyone else's. I have gained a sense of social justice, an obligation to act in a fair manner...a heightened sense of responsibility as an educator, ... including it's historical components, in a critical manner."

The classroom must be seen as a social context that represents the larger society (Cunningham, 1989). As such, professors of adult education must be active in their attempts to create multiple new experiences of power distribution, to giving voice, and helping create awareness of social and cultural norms if the learners are to gain experiences they can apply to their practices. As one student said, " I have gained a sense of social justice, an obligation to act in a fair manner...a heightened sense of responsibility as an educator, and an acceptance to examine my ecosystem, including it's historical components, in a critical manner." Another said: "You cannot make changes if you are not at least aware of these issues... Walking into a classroom I feel that I must help each student to see the world clearly through their own eyes, not mine or anyone else's."

We personally believe that without self-reflection and self-awareness, sensitivity to great cultural issues is unlikely to occur. Fostering critical thinking and discussing sensitive issues can be difficult in any classroom, and certainly we as professors, and our students, shared uncomfortable moments. However, our intentional design for classroom activities provided clear goals and outcomes for our students, our curricula, and ourselves. As beneficial as we feel these efforts were to our students, they also provided the structure for our own self-reflection and post-class processing of our emotions regarding multicultural issues. The models and conceptual framework (Ponterotto & Pederson, 1993, Banks, 1989) provided a helpful basis for seeking external feedback and support because they encouraged us to define our own questions and concerns. These issues, in turn, fed into designing classroom activities and discussions. Ultimately, our continuous efforts to link theory and practice and to foster self-reflection for social change lead us to acknowledge our praxis as a continuous work in progress.

Authors/ Presenters:

Dr. Sherwood Smith
Research Assistant Professor
Office of the Provost
461 Main Street, Allen House
University of Vermont
Burlington, VT 05405-0010
Ph: (802) 656-8833
email: ssmith3@zoo.uvm.edu

Dr. Catherine A. Hansman
Assistant Professor & Program Coordinator,
Adult Learning & Development
Cleveland State U., Rhodes Tower, Rm 1407
Counseling, Admin., Supervision, & Adult Learning
Cleveland, OH 44115
Ph: (216) 523-7134
email: c.hansman@popmail.csuohio.edu

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ADDING VALUE: FROM BEING OUTSOURCED TO BEING PERCEIVED AS REPRESENTATIVE OF BEST PRACTICES

Mitchell L. Springer

ABSTRACT

It's been two years since the company threw down the gauntlet: "The Corporate Training and Employee Development Department will find a way to add value to our organization or the entire function will be outsourced, somehow!" This paper describes a journey, which began as an effort to save a department, continues today, and through exhaustive evaluative efforts implemented practices perceived and acclaimed to be representative of the best in the field. It's story of a methodical process yielding deliberate actions aimed at aligning training and employee development with the long-term strategic objectives of the company, and yet satisfying the personal and professional goals of the employees. It's a story which demonstrates the complexities of adding value during a time of mergers, restructuring, reengineering, delayering, downsizing, and the new social contract. But, most of all, it's a story of success, with many lessons learned.

Introduction

For years before March 1995, Raytheon Systems Company (previously Hughes Defense Communications and before that Magnavox) recognized it had a problem with its Corporate Training and Employee Development Department. A terrible and insurmountable head-butting was taking place between the engineering disciplines and the Corporate Training and Employee Development Department.

The problem was that engineering and other attendant disciplines viewed the Corporate Training and Employee Development Department as a non-value adding organizational department. Engineering and others recognized the Department personnel primarily for their ability to manage degree programs. The Department, on the other hand, felt that engineering never gave them a chance to help in other ways. Engineering argued that the training and development personnel didn't understand their terminology, processes, products, or anything else which would help to determine their training needs. So the problem went, for years.

Evaluation of Best Practices

Upon my joining the department, the first few weeks were full of discussing what activities we currently did and performing time-studies of those activities. In parallel with this effort, we began a search---a search for what were perceived to the best training practices, not just in comparable industries, but across all industries. Our search for excellence took us to places like Disney University, Motorola University, and various seminars. It involved researching articles, books, and videos on what current training methodologies were being pursued.

As a group, we set out with our new found knowledge to create a mission for our organization and to create a unique identity. To create the unique identity, we designed and framed a functional logo. Marketing of our intent was most important. The internal mediums of communications available to us were: (1) an internal newsletter, (2) closed circuit television, and (3) pamphlet distributions.

After identifying what were perceived to be best practices, we performed numerous trade studies to determine their applicability and benefits versus costs if implemented in our

organization. The culmination of these efforts was a plan. The plan identified the initiatives, their attendant activities, timelines, and costs. All activities, henceforth, of this department, were bounded by the initiatives and activities described in the plan. Our approach was a multi-phase dual path, targeting (1) infrastructure and (2) business area performance improvement.

Solidifying the Infrastructure

Our approach was not at all conservative. We openly broadcast to the population what we were intending to do. We build expectations and potentially set ourselves up for perceived failure in the eyes of the employees.

Our strategy with this approach was twofold: (1) nothing had been done for so long that we wanted the employees to know that hings were going to be different, and (2) we were hoping the employees might open up to us and make suggestions on how to proceed, traps not to fall into, and any other help which might arise from having multiple minds at work. In closing this thought, we were extremely surprised at the outpouring of support we received from the employees of the company. Any change of direction from what we had been experiencing for such a long period of time was met with open arms.

Our first two initiatives were designed to do two things: (1) allow us to determine where every training and development dollar in the company was being spent and (2) identify on whom each training and development dollar was being spent. Relative to identifying where each dollar was spent, we wanted to place the funds for training and development with the department manager, monitor the actual expenditure of those funds against a budget baseline, and report variances to senior management on a monthly basis.

Until this point, a great deal of the funds were centrally located within the Training and Employee Development (T & ED) Department, while remaining funds resided with the individual departments. The departments could spend their training and development dollars any way they wished, and then they could spend the dollars of the T&ED Department without any consideration, until all funds were exhausted. Our goal was to place the funds, authority to spend the funds, and the accountability for the expenditure of the funds with the same individual, the department manager. A manifestation of the problems caused by the existing arrangement is represented in the following two stories:

Scenario #1---Employees participating in degree college courses offered in-house through satellite had their tuition for the courses paid upfront by the company, out of the T&ED Department budget. If the same employee was to pursue taking an off-site course at a local university, then the employee's department paid the tuition, after the employee successfully passed the course. Notice the difference: in-house college courses were paid for by the T&ED Department, while off-site college courses were paid for by the employee's department. Now look at the comparative costs:

In-house----------$1500.00 per course----------paid by the T&ED Department
Off-site----------$ 400.00 per course----------paid by employee's department

Even if the courses were of comparable quality, the department manager might opt to approve the more expensive in-house course because the funding for the course came from the T&ED Department budget. This obviously lent itself to potential waste and abuse.

Scenario #2---Ten employees from a given department may have signed up for in-house computer training. This type of training was paid for out of the T&ED Department. The day of the training, four employees fail to show up. Three problems arise: (1) Since the training was outsourced, we are charged a flat rate for the session regardless of attendance. (2) Another

employee was denied the opportunity for the training because the late cancellation notice didn't allow sufficient time for obtaining a replacement. (3) There was no sense of urgency on the part of the department managers about spending company training dollars without gaining any benefit.

The Change

Under the newly created charge back system, all training and development dollars are placed in the departments, and authorization for their expenditure and accountability for their expenditure reside with a single individual, the department manager. In Scenario #2, the department manager's budget is charged replacements are not secured.

The T&ED Department maintains baseline budgets for each department, by category of proposed expenditure. (The five categories of expenditure are as follows: degree programs, executive development, engineering/management development, in-house training, and seminars.) Then, through collaborative efforts with the Accounts Payable Department, we capture all expenditures against a given department. Actuals are plotted and variances are calculated. Because we have signature authorization before actuals are incurred, we are able to gain some synergy in our training expenditures, as illustrated in the following example:

Six employees at $3000.00 each were requesting to attend an off-site seminar. Total cost---$18,000.00. We contacted the agency providing the seminar and inquired about their bringing the seminar to our facility on an in-house basis. The result was that we placed 60 employees in the seminar for $20,000.00. The cost was about $333.00 per employee, or roughly a savings of $160,000.00 for the same training if we had sent all 60 off-site. More training, less lmoney. That's value-added!

Now that we knew exactly where each training and development dollar was going (department, category, etc.), our next major infrastructure initiative was to identify on whom the training and development was being spent. We had always captured employee information for college courses (degree, non-degree, credit, non-credit). What we now wanted to capture was all training for each employee. This included not only previously captured training/education opportunities, but also in-housel, off-site, or whatever. We wanted to collect all training/education data for each employee (salary and hourly) for the company.

To this end, we established an employee educational database. With the combination of the Department Budget Database and the Employee Educational Database, we not only know what dollars are being spent by department and category, but also on whom the dollars are being spent. From these two databases we can generate graphs and charts broken out in nearly an unlimited number of ways. We currently report: (1) training/education expenditures by department in terms of percents and dollars, (2) average training hours per employee for salary, hourly, and combination salary-hourly employees, and (3) company overall training budget versus actuals with a depiction of variances. Additionally, we frequently report types of training and dollars by discipline, function, EEO code, etc.

These two infrastructure initiatives, successfully implemented, have provided us tremendous respect from our user community. It is obvious after these two initiatives had been implemented that we in fact were going to do things differently. We were serious about adding value to our customers and the organization as a whole.

Enter the New Social Contract

With the infrastructure in place, it was time to focus our attention on value-adding business area performance improvement initiatives. Initiatives to-date had been received very

favorably from senior management, and the employees realized the benefit of having their training and education captured on permanent records, but we needed to begin our next set of initiatives to really gain the respect of the business areas and employees.

Since 1990 there has been a growing realization and subsequent definition of this entity known as the social contract. Definitions proliferated throughout articles and management books like the following from McCoy in his book Creating An Open Book Organization: "On an individual level the prerequisite to rising wages and benefits is to assume responsibility for rising education and skill levels...employees need to make themselves more valuable to their employers."

Edward Lawler III in his speech at the 1994 World Congress on Personnel Management said, "Restructuring will lead to more downsizing and configurations of organizations will continue to change, requiring new sets of skills from employees. The result is that people will have multiple careers, lateral careers."

As the T&ED Department, we felt that what was really important, in light of this new social contract, was that the employer provide educational opportunities which would allow the employees to continue to expand their existing knowledge bases, promoting personal and professional growth, and remain effective contributors to the company. Our objective was to assist employees in selecting those opportunities which provided the employees personal and professional satisfaction and also supported the company's overall strategic objectives. This very explicitly implies that the company espouses what its overall strategic objectives are. This will be discussed shortly.

We redefined the traditional vertical career development model. Instead of promoting the idea that the employee concern him/herself with how to proceed from a junior engineer to an engineer, senior engineer, staff engineer, etc., we encouraged the employee to obtain the necessary knowledge to assume responsibilities and perform tasks in peer level functions or disciplines. These are often horizontal movements, not vertical movements. In summary, we wanted the employees to assume responsibility for acquiring those skills which would help ensure employability.

Performance Improvement In Line with Strategic Objectives

To help guide the employees in their pursuits, the company President and General Manager both stood before employees and pronounced that the disciplines of long-term interest to the company were in software engineering and systems engineering. Additionally, there were words that recommended we implement our management practices consistently. From this overriding direction three programs were created.

The first program was a software engineering cross-training effort. This effort was an intense full-time nine week training session intended to take people who were not software engineers, who were winding down from other programs, and make them acceptable software engineers on programs where there was a requirement. This effort was a tremendous success in numerous ways: (1) The involved employees were elated that the company would invest these kinds of dollars in them; it made the participating employees feel privileged and endeared the organization. (2) The organization retained employees with an in-depth understanding of the organization's culture and climate. (3) The long-term cost to retrain the selected employees was considerably less than firing those without the required skills and hiring new employees with such skills.

Our systems engineering initiative was aimed at providing consistency in the way we implement our Systems Engineering Process. Prior to initiating this training, we had spent the

previous five years years designing, developing, and implementing an in-house Systems Engineering Process. The process, however, was not routinely followed, uniformly understood, or uniformly implemented. This initiative focused on bringing in an outside source who could instill the basics of systems engineering given our current Systems Engineering Process. We simply sought consistency in implementation.

Our process was similar to provious efforts in that we wanted what was considered to be the best Systems Engineering Process training we could find. Our search culminated in finding an individual who had international recognition and authored numerous of the best selling books outlining the Systems Engineering Process.

At this point, we felt each of the participants involved in this training would perhaps better appreciate the magnitude of this opportunity if they invested a portion of their time. To this end, we offered this opportunity over a three day period: Thursday, Friday, and Saturday. Each Thursday-Saturday session constituted one course. There were four courses in all, one course being offered each month. To sweeten the opportunity, we arranged for the courses to be offered through the University of California, Irvine (UCI). UCI provided Continuing Education Units to the participants.

The third performance improvement opportunity in line with the long-term needs of the organization was in bringing consistency to our management practices. To do this, we contracted with an outside individual. Again, as in previous initiatives, we did not simply want a typical "expert." What we wanted, and ultimately got, was an individual who not only tailored the management skills training to our needs, but when the last session was completed would pull together a list of common concerns voiced by our employee participant. Further, this particular individual had been involved with numerous Fortune 500 companies and would routinely offer suggestions on how other organizations addressed the concerns we were experiencing. The added value, then was not only the training and its obvious benefits, but also the follow-up synopsis and recommendations.

With these three performance improvement initiatives launched, we had addressed the immediate and pronounced long-term interests of the company.

Becoming More Integrated

When we first began in March of 1995, if we were to have asked anyone to identify how many in-house training opportunities existed, being taught by in-house personnel, nobody could have identified more than seven. On investigation we identified 150 different in-house training opportunities, facilitated by in-house personnel, on a weekly, bi-weekly, monthly, or "as needed" basis.

Our intent was to centralize the administration and coordination of all in-house training. Ultimately, all in-house educational opportunities were identified, documented, centralized in design, and decentralized in delivery. Our activities included the following: (1) We eliminated all "Jack-of-all-trades" trainers. (2) To bring consistency to the training and increase its effectiveness, we provided Train-the-Trainer training for the in-house subject matter experts. Our trainers, then, armed with concepts on adult learning theory and common approaches to creating effective training, were able to change the lecture-style training previously used to an exciting workshop-oriented approach. (3) In line with our original intent to centralize the administration, we offered each of the in-house trainers the opportunity to use our services for registration, confirmation, equipment, facility coordination, reproduction of materials, evaluation, etc. All of these activities were previously performed by the trainers themselves. (4) From our involvement,

we were able to collect more accurate information on who was receiving what type of training and how much. The value of this particular database seemed to be threefold: (a) career development, (b) job selection, and (c) as a transcript for the employee.

We documented into a single source all available opportunities and placed this catalog of information on-line so that anyone with a computer could have ready access to it. This further promoted self-reliance on the part of the employees.

Focused Initiatives

We implemented a number of very focused initiatives intended to encourage our employees to participate in training/educational opportunities. This tied to our overall strategy of providing opportunities necessary if the employee were to assume a greater responsibility for his/her own accumulation of knowledge. Subsequent paragraphs describe a number of our more significant focused initiatives.

Improved Tuition Reimbursement---On initiation, we counted seven different tuition reimbursement policies on record. From these, we created a single policy to encourage employees to take advantage of educational assistance by eliminating the hour restrictions and increasing the number of allowed course per semester or quarter to a total of three. Our decision to modify our policies and practices in this way came about as a result of a national multi-company trade study. Several national companies in our industry, as well as local companies in our community were polled. Our resultant approach was truly one of the most generous policies offered nationally. Ours has no dollar or credit hour restrictions. We sincerely want to encourage employees to participate in college/university course offerings.

University Collaboration---We had a number of employees who wanted to pursue their Master of Science in Computer Science (MSCS), but the program did not exist locally through neighboring universities. After numerous discussions with local universities, we approached Ball State University (BSU). The end result, BSU began by sending professors to our site, once a week per course, to teach actual MSCS courses. Now, these MSCS courses are offered over our in-house satellite network, broadcast live from campus. Additionally, further collaboration has resulted in the local campus of Purdue University now offering a fully accredited Master of Science in Applied Computer Science degree.

Training Cost Sharing---There were some training opportunities which the employees wished to participate in, but yet were not perceived to be work-related by the organization. To this end, we decided to offer this training in the evening on the employees' time and at a shared cost with the employee.

There also were other initiatives introduced, including the following: (1) the creation of an on-line Information Resource Center, (2) creation of satellite engineering management libraries, (3) creation of an executive management bookclub, and (4) enhanced distance education offerings through installation of steerable and fixed satellite dishes.

Dr. Mitchell L. Springer, Director, Training and Employee Development
(E-mail: mlspri@most.fw.hac.com)
Raytheon Systems Company, 1010 Production Road m/s 10-33, Fort Wayne, IN 46808-4106

AFFIRMATIVE ACTION ACCOUNTABILITY: ACTION LEARNING THAT BLENDS INDIVIDUAL AND ORGANIZATIONAL VALUES

Cami Zawacki
Sharon Abraham

ABSTRACT

Our attitudes, beliefs, and values are developed from many life experiences. Today, significant behavior changes among leaders are expected within our organizations. These expectations are often viewed as change that transforms. Some desired changes pose a value-based dilemma for leaders. Affirmative action is one type of organizational change that can often create conflict between meeting organizational needs and adhering to one's beliefs. Research is needed that considers how a leader's values and beliefs are related to organizational activities. As organizations are transformed, do the values of leaders change? Do individual values need to change for transformation to occur? Meizrow describes transformational change as something achieved through action and reflection; this is accompanied by a transformation in "meaning" structures. Action learning, a concept pioneered by Reg Revans, is a process where learners interpret and reinterpret their experiences and arrive at new meanings. This paper explores the merits of creating action learning opportunities in organizations and studies this form of learning from a constructivist perspective. A organization's decentralized, problem-solving model of affirmative action is described and considered in relation to action learning. The model creates an opportunity for divisional leaders to engage in action learning, through planning, action and reflection/analysis surrounding an actual problem that requires them to initiate change strategies. A study of this model suggests that opportunities for leaders to examine their personal beliefs in relation to meeting organizational needs extends their learning. If individual values and beliefs stand in the way of achieving desired organizational change, learning opportunities that transform "meaning" can help. Using action research, action learning can be examined in relation to transformational change.

Introduction

The concept of affirmative action creates a value-based dilemma for some leaders. When organizational members are expected to change their behaviors, the need to create learning opportunities for leaders to confront and examine their personal beliefs about bias and achieving equality are important. Here, we consider the concepts of transformational learning and knowledge creation in relation to a decentralized divisional diversity planning process. Today, affirmative action legal mandates swirl in controversy! Simultaneously, organizations reaffirm the need to value diversity and engage in more inclusive activities. Amidst this rhetoric, experiences that help transform the workplace should include opportunities for leaders to consider, confront, and transform their personal beliefs.

Leaders express value-based concerns about the artificial, transitional nature of affirmative action. They balk when affirmative action intervenes upon their decision-making activities. Leaders ask if affirmative action is replacing one form of discrimination with another; noting that both forms are wrong. Leaders are instructed to engage in actions, as prescribed by law and

policy, which in turn causes leaders to begin sifting through their set of conflicting personal values.

Leaders tend to ignore the potent effect that their past experiences have upon their current behaviors and beliefs. Past experiences include decisions rooted in hereditary privilege. Valuing heredity, which is deeply rooted in our country's history, has produced certain patterned behaviors and beliefs. Today, leaders are asked to ensure that competitive opportunities are equally distributed. In this attempt, behaviors learned while creating opportunities based on hereditary privilege, such as giving preference for family members or for individuals who share similar religious beliefs, is challenged when the call for creating opportunities based on a person's gender or race surfaces. The dilemma for many leaders is a value-based conflict that arises between personal (learned) values and organizational needs established by equal opportunity and affirmative action laws. Organizational opportunities for learning that promotes change, accompanied by transformation of one's beliefs, can help resolve this dilemma.

This paper examines how the need for transforming attitudes and beliefs about equality, diversity, affirmative action, or bias, among individual leaders, is important if transformation of organizations is to be achieved through affirmative action programs. Specific actions and particular problem solving activities associated with an organization's affirmative action efforts require action learning opportunities and can be studied from a transformational theoretical perspective. Also, affirmative action programs create research opportunities that help us understand more about how leaders blend their individual beliefs into organizational strategies and legally required mandates, especially when they conflict. Finally, studies about affirmative action activities offer a chance to examine when changed behaviors represent newly created knowledge, demonstrated through changes in behavior.

Researching Transformation Through Learning

First certain features of the transformational theory of adult learning are examined in relation to affirmative action and leadership transformation activities. Then a decentralized leadership model for carrying out affirmative action responsibilities is considered in this context. Research that centers on learning opportunities through action and reflection, plus organizational opportunities with the potential to create new knowledge, evidenced by particular behaviors among the participants in an organizational activity, is discussed.

The transformational theory of adult learning suggests that both action and reflection about our actions, can transform "meaning" structures. Most affirmative action training seeks primarily to change behaviors, and only pays lip service to the role of individual beliefs and values in relation to behaviors and outcomes. Training often focuses on what Nonanki and Takeuchi describe as explicit knowledge (which can be communicated to others), and ignores tacit knowledge (knowledge that is forgotten, but often demonstrated in behaviors). Mezirow identifies adult education attempts as ways to facilitate *instrumental* learning, which is competency-based and outcomes focused. In contrast, *communicative* learning is grounded in three additional activities: critical reflection of assumptions supporting our beliefs, discourse to validate our beliefs, and reflective action upon new insights gained from transformed meaning structures.

Affirmative action is a twenty-five year old concept, growing more controversial and complex with age. Leaders must be encouraged to interpret and reinterpret this concept in relation to their experiences, and to verify and align the affirmative action concept with already-possessed beliefs and values. The relation of leaders' behaviors and values created through past experiences

in relation to affirmative action programs is considered. A day of training on the subject of affirmative action or an organizational policy that professes an organizational commitment to comply with the law, will not necessarily bring about desired actions nor an opportunity for reflection on these actions. Reflection about what we have come to believe through our past practices and experiences, in relation to new ways of thinking about and carrying out equal opportunity programs is valuable. Engaging in strategies (actions) for meeting affirmative action requirements needs continuous, transformational learning opportunities. Action research is one way of studying these types of organizational activities in relation to learning.

Leaders often must transform their personal beliefs about bias and equality before transformed leadership behaviors emerge. One way of seeking to transform leaders' beliefs and leadership strategies, is to create collaborative learning opportunities, and to facilitate action learning (planning, action, and reflection/analysis) through specific problems solving activities.

Transformation Theory of Adult Learning. Meizrow describes the transformational theory of adult learning as a constructivist orientation to the way adults learn. Transformation is a process where our meaning structures are transformed through reflection, which is defined as giving attention to the grounds (justification) for one's beliefs. "We reflect on the unexamined assumptions of our beliefs when the beliefs are not working well for us, and when old ways of thinking are no longer functional. ... Most reflection takes place within the context of problem solving. We may reflect on the content of the problem, the process of problem solving, or the premise of the problem, or all three." (Mezirow, 1996) Leaders are expected to engage in "good faith efforts," and to remove invisible barriers to provide equal access and equal opportunity for all. If a collaborative learning environment is created that encourages reflection and analysis, then more effective problem solving strategies may emerge and become integral to organizational activities. Higher quality and longer lasting equal opportunity strategies may also emerge.

Action Learning. The concept of action learning, pioneered by Reg Revans, is a form of transformation. Action learning is sometimes described as a process where learners interpret and reinterpret their experiences and arrive at new meanings. This form of learning not only changes beliefs, but sometimes changes behaviors. To achieve learning and create new knowledge, Cliff Bunning emphasizes actions tied directly to a particular project or a problem solving activity ... reflecting by interpreting and reinterpreting an experience.

Researching Transformation through Action Learning. Specific actions carried out for a project or as part of problem solving activities do not necessarily involve learning. Examining whether efforts create a learning environment, Bunning and others, suggest that four elements should be present. They are: the presence of an actual project, planning, action, and reflection/analysis. These elements are consistent with Mezirow's view of transformational learning which is considered when individuals reflect on their actions (and others), and their meaning structures are transformed. Therefore, a study about transformation and action learning, should identify *planning, action and reflection/analysis* activities, in relation to an organization's project or a problem solving activity. Bunning also notes that significant learning can only take place in an organization where its culture generally supports change.

Creating New Knowledge. Attitudes and beliefs about affirmative action are embedded within the personal value structure of individual leaders. In addition to creating a collaborative (action) learning environment that produces changed behaviors, the need for new knowledge is equally valuable to sustain desired changes. Studies about knowledge gained through experience represent a new wave of research in recent years. Not only socio-economic theorists such as Peter Drucker and Alvin Toffler call our attention to the importance of knowledge as a

management resource, but also an increasing number of scholars in the fields of industrial organization, technology management, management strategy and organization theory have begun to theorize about management knowledge. (Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995)

How is knowledge constructed in an organization? How is knowledge that resides in individual organizational members transferred to others and how does individual knowledge inform organizational practice? These questions spark a new analytical dimension for organizational learning studies. Also, new insights regarding individual influences upon organizational activities stemming from new knowledge created through experience, in this case knowledge about affirmative action, may emerge.

Tacit and Explicit Knowledge. There is no epistemological foundation for studies about organizational knowledge; yet a better understanding about the knowledge of organizational members can inform our thinking about organizational change and development. Nonaka and Takeuchi study how individuals learn to transform tacit knowledge into explicit knowledge, citing its value in sustaining organizational change. Other research refers to action learning and implied learning; and still other studies consider open and closed systems of learning. (Argyris, 1968; Scott, 1992; Birnbaum, 1991) Explicit knowledge is something that exists in organizations in the form of a template, that can be communicated to others, and can inform future actions. Implicit knowledge, often forgotten but considered important in the realm of organizational change, is more intuitive, personal and subjective, and it appears through our behaviors. (Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995)

Earlier work by Polanyi (1966) described tacit knowledge as "knowing more than we can tell." Since this type of knowledge is largely inarticulable, it can only be seen through individual actions rather than from explanations about what the individual knows. Schon (1983) refers to "knowing-in-action," and Wagner (1985) developed a model of tacit knowledge defining it as "practical know-how." While some knowledge is known, other knowledge must be discovered through actions. Learning that achieves transformation and is studied through planning, action, and reflection, may represent new knowledge observed through changed behaviors within organizations.

Today, transformation is called for (and studied) in the organizational domain. Affirmative action advocates recognize the need to transform both the thinking and behavior of leaders and organizations. To evaluate the merits of affirmative action programs, features of action learning and knowledge creation as demonstrated through planning, action, and reflection/analysis, plus knowledge observed through actual behaviors, needs greater consideration. In this way, a relationship between transformation theory, action learning, and knowledge creation, to transformed organizational practices may be strengthened.

A Transformation Learning Model: Divisional Diversity Planning

A decentralized division planning model, referenced earlier, is one type of opportunity that encourages leadership teams to not only design and carry out affirmative action activities, but also encourages self-assessment. Opportunities are created to consider how one's personal beliefs influence organizational actions and outcomes.

The goal of the decentralized divisional planning process is to help the organization realize affirmative action results and to facilitate organizational cultural change through changed beliefs. This is accomplished by having each division set both numerical and programmatic goals for their unit. Numerical goals are set based on a common understanding among divisional leaders regarding their unit's workforce needs. Programmatic initiatives are self-constructed and are

designed to identify issues that can be addressed within each unit and that would best facilitate cultural change. (a self-constructed change model)

A unit or division is comprised of the top leader of a division, plus a selected group of leaders who are his/her direct reports. The division establishes its own numerical and programmatic goals, biannually. This is accomplished through a series of meetings where reports are reviewed that detail recent personnel transactions (i.e., hires, promotions, terminations), in the division. The leadership team is able to ascertain, by analyzing results of their own decisions, what degree of change has been realized within their unit. As their own decisions are reviewed by this team, discussion centers around the merits of each decision and factors that determined actual outcomes versus planned for and desired outcomes. This method of analysis is performed repeatedly every six months, and over time trends can be recognized by the team members themselves. (team-based self-evaluation)

Over time, divisional teams begin to surface certain factors, that appear to be interfering with their success. The groups begin to seek new ways of identifying and measuring their success, as their examination of affirmative action issues grow more complex? Also, they begin to observe that many of their decisions are made for the good of the organization, and recognize that the least of these concerns was about maintaining or creating equity. They begin to consider if this is justifiable? Leaders will reflect on their actions, at these semi-annual review sessions. Testimonials are shared. New insights gained from a leader's experience (stemming from this problem solving effort) are revealed. This planning model incorporates the opportunity for action and reflection. This planning model has become an action learning opportunity.

The divisional diversity planning program must be linked with the strategic direction of the unit and the organization. Successful diversity and affirmative action programs must be supported by the top leaders of an organization. Making a commitment to processes that will provide this support is obtained through this joint decision-making, strategic-planning process carried out at each divisional level. Ownership of the issues is crucial and achieved through self-evaluation of results within each division. This interchange of ideas and evaluation occurs biannually with the same group of leaders, who not only have set forth the initial goals (numerical and programmatic), but also participate in the evaluation of their own divisional progress.

The divisional model creates an environment within which critical analysis occurs, and creates an opportunity for action learning and transformation of meaning. All too often, issues or problems identified by an outsider may not be accepted; while the same issue or problem as identified by a peer group member is seen as a meaningful contribution. The environment in this divisional planning model is a safe zone, where suggestions are more readily accepted and acted upon by both individual members and the team as a whole.

Frequent evaluated discussions have been observation within the various team planning sessions over a two year period. A voluntary exchange of value-based ideas, that sometimes reinforces and sometimes challenges individual personal beliefs of other team members has been observed. Also, a tendency has been identified for entire teams to readily take responsibility for their results, and/or their lack of results; rarely is one leader singled out as responsible for particular outcomes. As described by Nonanki and Takeuchi, these observed information exchanges are enriching. Individuals seem to transform their tacit (forgotten) knowledge into explicit knowledge. Individual leaders would offer "moving testimonials" about how a recent experience, (planned and carried out as part of this divisional planning process), had produced a new depth of understanding about, or new commitment to affirmative action that had not been achieved from other past experiences. Some leaders would offer very reflective moments for

other peers to consider. This atmosphere served to strengthen trust and respect among the group of peers. In addition to measurable successes, the testimonials may be evidence of having gained new knowledge that may alter one's personal values and beliefs.

Organizational groups, like these divisional leadership teams, recognize a problem, then jointly develop and implement solutions. This model also establishes continuous opportunities to engage in self-evaluation of results within their control. This produces action learning opportunities, and is also an action research opportunity. Most organizational change is rarely achieved by a single leader at a single moment. A problem-solving model that provides a continuous opportunity to discover and learn about evidence of change, which in turn to confirms or challenges a perception about goal achievement, creates the potential for learning. Not only are organizations more likely to change through these types of learning opportunities, a process that incorporates opportunities to reflect on and share individual values and beliefs, increases the likelihood transformation. (Meizrow, 1996) Successful implementation of an idea such as affirmative action, is enhanced when those illusive, intangible leadership commodities stemming from personal values are considered and influenced in the context of change.

This leadership planning model appears to be a new, more effective, approach toward helping leaders address a value-based dilemma. We may come to understand that concerns centering upon affirmative action stem more from how we attempt to implement the concept, than from the concept itself. Our ability to create a close relationship between studying leaders values and organizational needs is important. Furthermore, the need for many forms of equity in the workplace will continue and requires our attention and study.

Conclusion

Through action research the researcher is not just an observer but is also a participant. Many questions and concerns can be posed within this research context. Action research can enrich the existing body of knowledge about transformation and action learning within the organizational domain. Bunning advocates that action research about learning should incorporate the elements of planning, action and reflection/analysis in relation to a project, set in an organizational culture that supports change. Action research, offers a case study format, and strives to enrich other research. Techniques such as incorporating plural text (many voices), featuring materials developed by actual participants who are engaged in learning activities and creating particularized descriptions of how individuals learn in groups as they carry out their work, (i.e., learning in action), can enhance our research efforts and bind them more closely to practice.

As individual values and beliefs stand in the way of organizational progress and transformational change, new ways of designing and studying action learning opportunities can enhance our understanding about organizational transformation.

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Sharon Abraham
Director of Diversity and Compliance
Oakland University
248-370-3496 /E-mail: abraham@oakland.edu

Cami Zawacki, Ph.D.
President, HR/AA Consulting
616-957-8997
E-mail: zawacki1@pilot.msu.edu

Learning Organizations: Building Research into Work Practice

Polly J. Bashore
General Motors Corporation

ABSTRACT

This work focuses on the development of a learning process that can be embedded into work practices within any organization. Also presented is a learning model that has been incorporated into the workflow practices of the engineering design group at General Motors Powertrain Group. This paper specifically discusses the results of a group facilitation activity that was used to develop and install a common design process for engineering. Beyond the common process, a secondary goal was to embed learning practices within the design process. Research and planning were the primary learning model components installed as part of this activity.

INTRODUCTION

Today in many organizations workers are assigned tasks without prior knowledge or training. Sometimes workers may not like to admit or refuse to admit they lack the necessary skills to perform the task. And, what about those who profess expertise? Are they beginners? Have they learned only from experience or have they consulted with other experts? Workers must learn to be inquisitive and search for more information and knowledge because each task is related to another, and these tasks are all part of a larger system. Why don't workers have the desire to learn and share knowledge? Are they defying management? Are they lazy? Does the organization lack a learning system?

The task was to institute learning in the product design room. Product design at General Motors Powertrain involved creating drawings for each part of the engine. The drawings are stored electronically and used to manufacture parts for the engine assembly plants. Several design supervisors asked for assistance in establishing a common design process. But, they wanted more than just a common process. They wanted to establish a workflow that would enable workers to learn as they were following the process. I did what any beginner would do. I went to the library and began researching ways in which learning takes place in an organization. I located tremendous amounts of material on learning theories and organizational learning tactics, but I could not find practical knowledge on how to specifically embed learning into business processes. I gathered and read all the learning theory material: Senge, Deming, Argyris, and material from many other "experts" in learning. Still, all I had were concepts, with no practical ideas for application. My hypothesis was that to institute learning into an organization, learning steps had to be incorporated into current work processes. If workers were required to follow established business processes as they execute their daily tasks, they would perform learning steps and learn as a result.

A LEARNING PROCESS

My first goal was to establish a learning process. I determined that if I could explain how learning takes place in a detailed workflow I would most likely be able to embed that workflow into the design process. Using the only practical approach I knew, I looked at how I learned and created a workflow for the process (Figure 1). I also utilized concepts from Dr. W. E. Deming's review of the Shewhart cycle (Plan, Do, Study, Act) and Huber's model for learning.

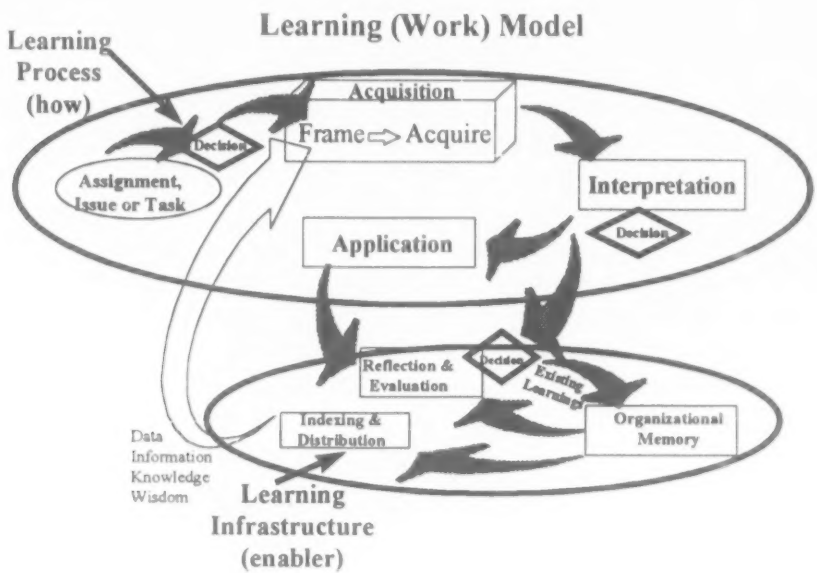

Figure 1: A Learning Model

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The Learning (work) model contains two primary components: a learning process, and a learning infrastructure. The learning process is "how" people can learn. The learning infrastructure represents an enabler to the learning process. These components cannot stand alone, thus the model represents a system view of learning. The model also represents the way people can become learning workers.

The first major component of the learning process consists of three primary stages: Acquisition, Interpretation, and Application. Assuming the infrastructure is in place, these three activities continue throughout the execution of any task or project. Acquisition involves framing the problem and acquiring data, information, and knowledge from numerous sources residing in the infrastructure. The goal of Acquisition is to capture existing or available knowledge and frame how this knowledge can be applied. Without this step, learning is inhibited and mistakes are repeated. Interpretation involves how workers and teams place meaning on the data, information, and knowledge that has been acquired. This involves worker learning styles, mental models, and experiences stored in each human being. Without interpretation there is no meaning. The next stage is Application, which is the ability to take interpreted data, information, and knowledge and

apply it to the completion of a project. Application is the ability to do and learn. It is the most essential part of the learning process because it leads to feedback.

The learning infrastructure consists of: Reflection/Evaluation, Organizational Memory, Information Indexing and Distribution. This portion is called the infrastructure because it supports the entire process. The first activity, Reflection/Evaluation, is the process of evaluating the results of information or knowledge acquired, interpreting knowledge and determining its value, if any, to the organizational members. Without evaluation, all information obtained from the application would be stored, leading to an overload of information in the organization. The second component, Organizational Memory, represents the capability of the organization to collect pertinent information learned from the Application stage. The third component is Information Indexing and Distribution. This involves storage and quick, easy retrieval and distribution of vast amounts of information and knowledge. Without this, workers struggle while looking for information and may eventually quit searching due to frustration.

THE DESIGN PROCESS AND IMPLEMENTATION OF LEARNING

My first step with the design supervisors was to gain an understanding of their objectives and needs. The group listed what they wanted to accomplish:

- ⇒ Create a common design process and procedure manual (fully documented workflow)
- ⇒ Identify defects in the current process
- ⇒ Understand why there was a large volume of rework
- ⇒ Provide a list of sources for design information, best practice storage and lessons learned
- ⇒ Establish future metrics and establish the means to track for continuous improvement

After the objectives were formulated I had the group explore the primary services they performed for customers. As a team we needed a better understanding of what their product was and how it served the needs of their customer. A relationship chart was created relating design deliverables to different customers. This helped to focus the group activity around deliverables and establish a high level design workflow (Figure 2).

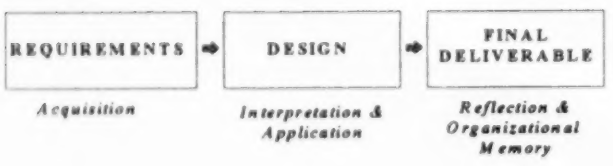

Figure 2 Design Process

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In the past, the designers tapped into their memory when receiving a design assignment from a manager. If he or she failed in a previous attempt to complete a similar assignment, he or she was hesitant to start, or started without acknowledging previous failure. When confronted with a task, the designer created the drawing based on prior experience. If the designer performed similar tasks repeatedly, they would not hesitate to begin execution. When proceeding directly to execution, the designer was encountering several outcomes based on his or her approach. By analyzing the work within the design room, results were determined by one or more of the following: (1) lack of new knowledge or use of stored knowledge, (2) something had changed in the system (meaning interrelationships with other processes), or (3) uncertainty or lack of confidence. Some designers succeeded at the assigned tasks, but because of the nature of systems they were "breaking" something else. Because of the nature of engineering design, interfaces to other parts must always be a consideration. But, because the designers were not always knowledgeable about interfacing parts or other active engineering changes they sometimes designed there own parts in error and rework was required.

For the design process, the team focused on what happened at the point a design request came from the engineer to the design room. There was a tremendous amount of variation in the input. This variation caused each design supervisor to react differently to assigning the task to a designer. In addition, there were four design supervisors and at least four different processes that were being used to execute the design work. We first focused on the Task Assignment stage of the learning model. We addressed this process by assuming that before any job enters the design room, a common task assignment process must be followed. This allowed for consistent conversation between the designer and the supervisor. A task assignment process allowed for agreement on the final deliverables before the designer could proceed with the task.

We then discovered that the most critical step, Acquisition and Framing, was missing from their workflow. Designers were sometimes starting from scratch when working on a new design. Although this led in some cases to creative and innovative designs, it also caused less experienced designers to not re-use successful work. In addition assignments were primarily critical in nature, and many designers felt the need to jump to the application stage and create designs immediately. In some cases they were using old designs to start with, but with no understanding whether the old design was applicable. In other words, they were beginning execution because the proper research processes were not in place.

Focusing on acquisition, I had the team look at how designers proceeded with their task. The supervisors established a goal to have the designer admit to being a beginner and frame or plan a design approach. Framing in this case meant to establish a plan for completing the design. Without this, execution was experienced-based only, with little opportunity for planning and challenging assumptions and previous knowledge. In addition, the supervisors wanted their designers to become fast learners. Even though the designers would start as beginners, with access to the right information they would have the capability to quickly adapt and learn. People's past experiences also were inhibiting their ability to take a new approach towards solving a problem; thus, before moving onto acquisition, the designers needed to have the opportunity to explore their perceptions, the

experience-based knowledge between designers, and the available information through organizational memory systems.

The variation of learning between designers was based on their own framing of historical experience, and what information or knowledge they pursued. With this in mind, managers needed to provide designers with a structured approach to the acquire stage of acquisition, as illustrated in Figure 3.

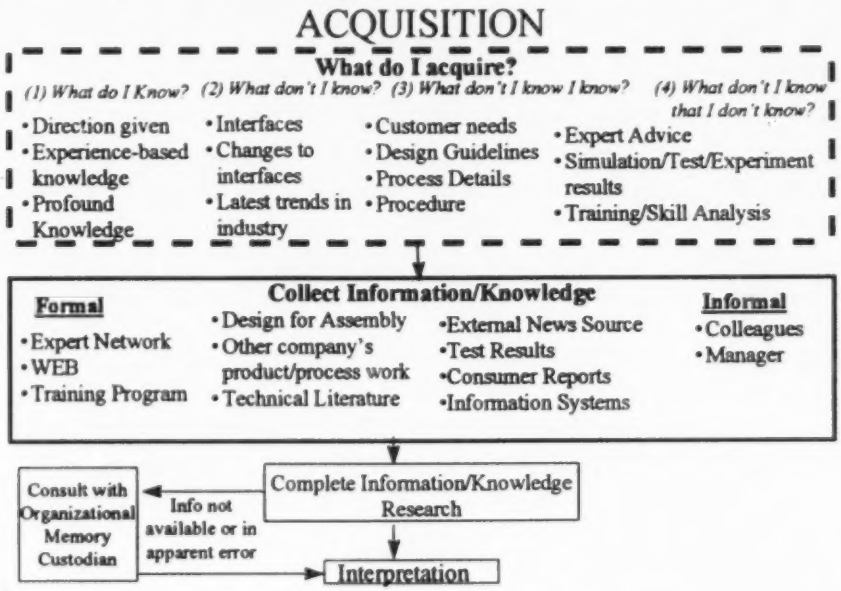

Figure 3: The Acquisition Stage

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After acknowledging that designers were not conducting the proper research prior to beginning design work, the supervisors determined that to succeed at Acquisition and Framing they must institute a formal design plan process to ensure designers were executing the proper research steps for the design process. The design plan consisted of the following:

⇒ Description of the change or new design
⇒ Previous design models that were successful (re-use)
⇒ Specific requirements (determined by the engineer)
⇒ Plan for executing the creation of a new model

In many cases, designers were beginning work without all the requirements. As a consequence, they would start design work but then stop when requirements were missing. By instituting research (acquisition and framing) into the front end of the process, they were given a design plan that encouraged them to collect all requirements at before starting the design. In other words, research became part of their normal workflow.

IMPLEMENTATION

The end result was creation of a template for design research and planning. This template had to be completed before work could actually begin. The design research and planning template was implemented, but resistance to such a plan was tremendous because most designers perceived this as taking too long to execute. What had to be proven was that without the plan, the design work took just as long because of the starting and stopping within the current process. In addition, without the plan, errors were much more frequent and designs had to be reworked as a result of such errors. As part of the design plan implementation designers, engineers, and design supervisors were forced to interact in a formal manner to discuss all the design requirements and agree on a plan to proceed.

DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Currently the design research and planning process has been modified and simplified to ensure that work is streamlined as much as possible. Metrics on the success of the design research plan are forthcoming. The assumption is that by instituting research steps into the front-end of the design process, designers will be building more accurate and possibly improved designs. The next step for the design room is to establish templates for the design plan that can be recalled electronically and re-used when similar work enters into the design room. These templates will ensure that designers are no longer beginning from scratch, but utilizing previously successful work to improve future designs. Other groups are also beginning to look at their processes to determine how to implement Acquisition (research and planning). Even the most clerical of tasks can benefit from research embedded into business processes.

Formalizing the Learning Infrastructure will also assist in completion of the learning methodology. Currently, best practice information is stored in Organizational Memory, but it is uncertain how often workers are tapping into memory systems before beginning work. By building a formal research (Acquisition) step into the business processes, the designers can be strongly encouraged to access memory systems as a process within the research and planning process. In addition, memory systems need to be easily accessible and simple to use, especially to accelerate the research process.

General Motors Powertrain is examining other ways to institute learning practices into everyday business. There are many learning processes in place, and the organization is committed to establishing an overall strategy for learning, one which will provide a framework for workers to develop new ways of thinking, problem solving and decision making. Fundamentally, workers need to be given the room and time to conduct research as part of their daily practice. Although the design activity will benefit from research prior to application, the potential to utilize research in other areas of the business will provide a competitive edge in an expanding global economy.

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